DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 233 565 FL 013 861

TITLE English Teachers' Journal (Israel), Number 28.
INSTITUTION Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem (Israel). English Inspectorate.
PUB DATE Jun 83
NOTE 88p.
AVAILABLE FROM English Inspectorate, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem 91 911 Israel.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - Serials (022) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
JOURNAL CIT English Teachers' Journal (Israel); n28 Jun 1983

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Computer Assisted Instruction; *Drama; *Economically Disadvantaged; Educational Media; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Hebrew; Language Tests; Low Achievement; Second Language Instruction; *Secretaries; Teaching Methods; *Translation

ABSTRACT

Information is provided for teachers of English as a second language in Israel on teaching methods and testing procedures. The eight articles and a number of brief notes discuss the official syllabus and examination for secretarial English, a new series of lessons designed for grades 11 and 12, the use of translation, teaching English to the disadvantaged, a differential syllabus for low ability students, the use of drama in second language instruction, computer-aided English instruction, instructional television, new examination exercises, and new textbook selections. (RW)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED233565

ISSN 0333-533 X

Ministry of Education and Culture
Pedagogical Secretariat — English Inspectorate

ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL (Israel)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Israel Ministry of Education + Culture
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

FL013861

Number 28

June 1983

Teachers of English are invited to write short articles, reports and letters to the editor. Please write to "English Teachers' Journal", English Inspectorate, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, 91 911.

"עלון למורים לאנגלית" מוצא לאור על־ידי הפיקוח על הוראת האנגלית, משרד החינוך והתרבות, ירושלים 91911, לכתובת זו יש לכוון את פניות הקוראים.

The "ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL (Israel)" is published by the English Inspectorate, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem 91 911, Israel, to whom all correspondence should be addressed.

עלון למורים לאנגלית, מס' 28, סיון תשמ"ג, יוני 1983

ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL (Israel)

Number 28, June 1983

ISSN 0333-533X

CONTENTS

Page

1. Information for English Teachers 1
   Bagrut Internal Examination; Examples of new Bagrut exercises; Listening Test 1982; Translation Workshop; New Publications and Textbooks; Choosing Official Textbooks Only; Pen-Pal Correspondence
2. Syllabus and Examinations for the Secretarial Trend 13
3. News from the R.I.C.H. Programme 16
   Ora Zohar
4. More Comments on the Use of Translation:
   1. English Through Hebrew: *Asher Harris* 18
   2. On the Proposal to Introduce Translation: *Merton Dagut* 20
   3. Reflections on the Use and Misuse of Translation: *Isaac Morris* ... 21
5. Teaching English to the "Disadvantaged" — What Do Teachers Think ... ? ... 27
   Helen Levenston
6. A Suggestion for a Differential Syllabus for the "Least-Able" Learners 32
   Raphael Gefen
7. Drama in Second Language Learning from a Psycholinguistic Perspective II ... 43
   Susan L. Stern
8. Computer-Aided Instruction for English: Israeli Projects:
   1. The Uses of Computer-Assisted Instruction — An Overview:
      Roberta Stock 46
   2. Computer-Assisted Teaching Project — S.M.L.: *Hadas Achituv* 56
   3. The Grade 7 Computer Programs for Tirat Hacarmel: *A. S. I. Acker* ... 61
   4. The Petach-Tikva CAI Project: *Yaira Perry* 64
   5. Mashov: Computer-Aided Instruction: *Rachel Ben-Moshe* 67
   6. A Computer Testing and Practice System for EFL—TOAM: *Susan Nissan* 70
9. News from the Instructional Television Centre 74
   Dvora Ben-Meir, Sionah Kronfeld, Sheila Been
10. Letters to the Editor 77
11. Synopses in Hebrew 83

INFORMATION FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS

Bagrut Examinations in English : Structure of the Compulsory Internal Examination in Reading Literary and/or Technical Texts (contents of circular sent to schools, September 1982)

Prescribed length of this examination (all levels and forms): 90 minutes. See the article in this issue of the "JOURNAL" for the internal examination requirements for the Secretarial Trend.

Examination in Reading Literary Texts (both for the מצומצמת תוכנית to accompany the 4-point examination and the מורחבת תוכנית to accompany the 5-point examination): examinees answer ONE question out of TWO offered on the DRAMA and ONE out of the THREE offered on the NON-DRAMA programme. A full list of the prescribed literary works was published in the "ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL", Number 26, January 1982. Examinees sitting for the מצומצמת תוכנית should be expected to write answers of about 100 words length; and examinees for the מורחבת programme should be expected to write about 200 words for each answer. Teachers have to submit their suggested question-paper to the English Inspector for their school (one question per item, three for the Drama, the total number of questions then being reduced by the Inspector to the limits mentioned above). Examinees for the מצומצמת programme study one Drama and TWO of the following three genres: the SHORT STORY (two), the ESSAY (two), POETRY (five). Examinees for the מורחבת programme study one Drama, four short stories, four essays and ten poems.

Internal Examination for Technical Schools (equivalent to the מצומצמת תוכנית only):

Option One: one Drama, two short stories, two articles in Technical English, glossary (bilingual) of Technical English specific to the Trend (250 items in the glossary).

Option Two: one Drama OR two short stories, four articles in Technical English (800 words in each) OR eight such articles (400 words in each), glossary as in Option One.

Option Three: six articles in Technical English (800 words in each) OR twelve such articles (400 words in each), glossary as in Option One.

Structure of the examination-paper for Technical Schools

Schools must submit their suggested programme for the examination and the suggested question-paper to the English Inspector for the school.

Option One: translate 15 out of 30 expressions in Technical English (from English to Hebrew or Arabic); give the gist in Hebrew or Arabic of a passage provided (1-2 paragraphs) from one of the articles studied ; one answer on the Drama and short stories studied (two questions on the Drama and one on the short stories to be provided).

Option Two: translation (as in Option One); two gists (as in Option One); one answer (as in Option One); OR translation, one gist, one answer, and one short Unseen reading comprehension passage (200 words) in Technical English: three open-ended answers in Hebrew or Arabic.

Option Three: translation (as in Option One); two gists (as in Option One); EITHER a third gist OR an Unseen reading comprehension passage (as in Option Two).

Examinees are allowed to use a bilingual dictionary in "general" English during the examination.

Note: Examinees for the internal examination at the GEMER level in Technical schools study according to the following programme: bilingual glossary of Technical English specific to the Trend (150 items), two articles in simplified Technical English (400 words in each) OR three such articles (250 words in each). Their internal examination will consist of translating 10 out of 20 expressions in Technical English (from English to Hebrew or Arabic), gist of a paragraph from one of the articles studied, oral-aural test.

Bagrut Examinations Summer 1983: examples of the "Rewrite" exercises (5 points only) (as sent to schools December 1982). Examinees are required to rewrite the sentences, using the key-word(s) given.

1. She's too young to have a pocket calculator. SHE ISN'T
   ANSWER: She isn't old enough to have a pocket calculator.
2. The wedding took place in July. THEY
   ANSWER: They got married in July.
3. My friend has been learning English for two years. TWO YEARS AGO
   ANSWER: My friend began learning English two years ago. (alternative word order)
4. This medicine bottle is almost empty. THERE IS
   ANSWER: There is hardly any medicine in this bottle.
5. They're isolated by a heavy fall of snow. CUT
   ANSWER: They're cut off by a heavy fall of snow. (or They've been cut off . . .)
6. I want to go to the cinema tonight. LIKE
   ANSWER: I would like to go to the cinema tonight. (or I'd like . . .)

7. She works in an office all day but manages to run a home as well. IN SPITE OF
   ANSWER: In spite of working in an office all day she manages to run a home as well.
8. He came to Israel in 1979. SINCE
   ANSWER: He has been in Israel since 1979.
9. He asked: "Am I late?" WHETHER
   ANSWER: He asked whether he was late.
10. She frightens him. AFRAID
    ANSWER: He is afraid of her.

Bagrut Examinations Summer 1983: example of the "Second Unseen" (mother-tongue open-ended answers). This example was sent to schools in September 1982; the "second Unseen" will be part of the THREE and FOUR point examination paper.

PSYCHOLOGY REDUCES ROAD ACCIDENTS

I

A Canadian professor has told a conference at Haifa University that he has successfully used psychology to reduce highway speeding by 90% and accidents by 50%. For many years now he has been conducting research on ways to dissuade drivers from speeding and has developed several techniques which have proved consistently effective in Canada.

II

One of his techniques is to put up highway signs that report on the number of drivers who did *not* speed during the preceding week. The police supply him with the number of these drivers; their method is to choose a random day each week for a radar check of all passing cars.

III

Another technique, used together with the road signs reporting on the "good drivers", is a special programme to deal with the bad ones. Those caught driving too fast are given warning tickets, together with a printed list describing the accidents and injuries on that particular road during the past year.

IV

"The combination of the weekly 'feedback signs' and the 'warning programme' produced a lasting reduction of speeding. The effects of a four day programme persisted for up to one year", the professor said.

V

The programme has been successful because it contains the essential element of public acceptance. "By asking the speeding drivers for their co-operation, the police earned compliments", the Canadian professor stated.

QUESTIONS:

1. Why does the Canadian professor consider his work successful (paragraph I)?
2. How does the professor use psychology to reduce accidents?
3. In what way is the professor's general approach different from the usual ones (para. II)?
4. In your opinion, why does the professor draw attention to drivers who did not speed (para. II)?
5. How do the two techniques described in the passage complement each other?
6. How does the researcher know who the drivers were that did not exceed the speed limit (para. II)?
7. In addition to being given warning tickets, *what else* were the bad drivers given and why (para. III)?
8. The passage says that the professor's combined programme was successful. What evidence is there for this (para. IV)?
9. Why did the police "earn compliments" (para. V)?
10. How did people in general react to the programme (paragraph V)?
11. Explain in Hebrew or Arabic the meaning of the following expressions, according to the context of the passage:

    1. reduce highway speeding
    2. For many years now he has been conducting research
    3. techniques... proved consistently effective
    4. highway signs
    5. a random day each week
    6. a lasting reduction of speeding
    7. the effects persisted
    8. up to one year
    9. warning tickets
    10. public acceptance
    11. the police earned compliments

LISTENING COMPREHENSION
(10 points)

סרק שני — הבנת הנשמע (10 נקודות)
הוראות לנבחן

אתם עומדים לשמוע קטע משודר. אל תביטו בשאלון בעת השידור הראשון. אחרי השידור בפעם הראשונה אפשר לפתוח את השאלון ולעיין בו, אך עדיין אין להשום את התשובות. בפעם השנייה, מותר לעיין בשאלון תוך כדי השידור, ולסמן את התשובות בעיגול. לאחר השידור השני, יותר לכם לעיין שנית בשאלון ולהמשיך לסמן את תשובותיכם.

ענה על עשר השאלות 29—38. (לכל שאלה נקודה אחת).

Listening Comprehension Test: Bagrut examination Summer 1982

The test consisted of the following text and questions:

Good morning.

You are about to hear a report about Japanese workers, and holidays in Japan. Japanese workers, it seems, do *not* like taking any *holiday from work*. In other countries of the world, many factory managers have the problem of workers *not coming to work regularly*. The word we use when workers do not come to work regularly and stay away from work without any good reason is *"absenteeism"*. This comes from the word *"absent"* — which, I am sure you know, is the opposite of "present". *Absenteeism* is a problem in many countries, but it seems that managers of factories in Japan have the *opposite* problem — the workers *do not take even their regular permitted holidays*! It seems that they like working so much that the managers have to try and *persuade* the workers to take *more* of their paid holidays.

For example, the manager of the Toyota Motor Car Company, whose name is Mr. Kouji Yada, told newspaper reporters recently: "We have asked the company's trade union to persuade workers to take more time off, *more days of their paid holiday*. We encourage them to take a few days off at a time, but this is a *difficult problem* because the Japanese take time off work *only when it is absolutely necessary*." Workers at this factory, he said, are allowed 20 days paid holiday a year, but on average they take only *50%* of that time. Many workers in other companies only take a few days holiday every year.

The Japanese custom is to regard it as a *social mistake* for a worker to *take the full holiday* which he is allowed, because if he took his full holiday, it would cut him off from his fellow-workers and also raise some doubt about the feelings of loyalty to the company he works for. He would also feel that he was not being loyal to his fellow-workers; in other words, he would feel that he was *not a good colleague*.

The same factory manager, Mr. Yada, went on to say: "We really want to persuade them to take more time off." On this same subject, an official of the Ministry of Labour in the Japanese government said: "Most Japanese do not take their full holiday because they worry that they would place an *extra load* on *their fellow-workers*." There have been no strikes at the Toyota Motor Car Company for over thirty years.

In return for hard work, most workers are assured employment for the whole of their lives, and Japan can now claim that it has the *lowest unemployment* among all the big industrial nations.

This report was sent by Mr. Peter Hazelhurst, the reporter for the London "Times" newspaper in Japan.

Answer questions 29–38. In each question, circle the most suitable answer. (For each question — 1 point)

הקף בפיגול את התשובה המתאימה ביותר.

29. The problem facing factory managers in Japan is:
    a) workers do not produce enough at work
    b) workers demand more paid holidays
    c) workers do not want to take their holidays
    d) workers do not come regularly to work

30. What did the manager of the Toyota Car Company tell newspaper reporters?
    a) The workers took too many days holiday a year.
    b) His company was losing money because the workers were not producing enough.
    c) The trade unions demand more days of paid holiday.
    d) He wanted the workers to take more holidays.

31. When do Japanese workers take time off?
    a) Only during the Summer holidays from school.
    b) For the whole of their paid holidays but not more.
    c) Only when it is absolutely necessary.
    d) Too often, in the opinion of the Toyota Company.

32. On the average, how many days holiday a year do the Toyota workers *take*?
    a) 10 days.
    b) 15 days.
    c) 20 days.
    d) 50 days.

33. Japanese custom regards it as a social mistake:
    a) for workers to take less than their full holidays
    b) for workers to take their full holidays
    c) for workers to join trade unions
    d) for workers to feel more loyal to the company than to the family

34. Why will the Toyota Company find it difficult to carry out their suggestion?
    a) The workers would feel disloyal.
    b) The company would not be able to pay the workers more.
    c) The trade unions would demand more paid holidays.
    d) The workers would demand more pay.

35. The official of the Japanese government said that at this factory the workers:
    a) took too many days holiday and so caused production to fall
    b) went on strike because they did not get enough holidays

c) did not take their full holidays because this would mean more work for the others to do
d) did not take their full holidays because they would then lose pay

36. The percentage of unemployed workers in Japan, compared to other big industrial countries, is
a) about the same
b) lower
c) higher
d) much higher

37. What do we learn about strikes at the Toyota Car Company?
a) There have been only 30 strikes in the whole of the company's history.
b) The workers are not allowed to strike.
c) There has been a strike there every year for the last 30 years.
d) There has not been a strike for over 30 years.

38. You have just heard:
a) a report from a British newspaper reporter
b) a statement by the Japanese Trade Union of Car Workers
c) a report from a Japanese newspaper reporter
d) an advertisement for the Toyota Car Company

Note: The test in Listening Comprehension will be compulsory for "External" examinees also, as from Summer 1984.

Translation Workshop in Jerusalem and Tel-Aviv

Groups of teachers in these cities have been meeting regularly to consider the possible setting-up of "Translation Workshops" in their schools as an additional activity for select pupils or classes at a very advanced level of English (as one of the frameworks for the 6-point Bagrut). Classes are experimenting with the passages from the book "English for Translation" by Dennis Chamberlin and Gillian White (Cambridge University Press).

"Shops and Fashions" and "Describing an Outfit"

These booklets, published by the Curriculum Centre of the Ministry of Education and Culture, are available from "Maalot" publishers (address as for the "Curriculum" notice in this issue). Prices are as follows:

Describing an Outfit: 20 shekels (Teacher's Guide: 4 shekels).
Shops and Fashions: 38 shekels

Reading Programme in English: Kernerman Publishing

The following titles are available in this series; each title is a separate booklet containing the text, glossary, explanatory material and exercises.

James Baldwin: My Dungeon Shook; Somerset Maugham: Mr. Know-All; Jesse Stuart: The Split Cherry Tree; Bernard Malamud: A Summer's Reading; Tillie Olsen: I Stand Here Ironing; Bernard Malamud: Angel Levine; James Thurber: My Secret World of Idiom; Frank O'Connor: My Oedipus Complex; Dorothy Parker: The Standard of Living; Doris Lessing: A Mild Attack of Locusts; Poetry; James Thurber: Courtship through the Ages; T. Beachcroft: The Erne from the Coast; James Joyce: Eveline; Arthur Miller: All My Sons; Arthur Miller: Incident at Vichy; Enrique Vargas: The Jet Age Malady; George Bernard Shaw: Pygmalion; Susan Glaspell: Trifles; Margaret Mead: One Vote for This Age of Anxiety; Flannery O'Connor: Everything That Rises Must Converge; Philip Roth: Eli the Fanatic; John Steinbeck: The Leader of the People; Pearl Buck: The Enemy.

New Publication: GEMER EXAMINATION PAPERS (Two Points), 1976-1982

This collection of past papers in the GEMER examination is available from Good Times Publishing Company, POB 3576, Jerusalem, 91035. Tel. 02-525353, price 200 shekels per copy with class orders of 10 or more; the minimum order possible is 5 copies at 250 shekels per copy. Teachers will probably find this publication useful for acquainting their pupils with the format and level of the examination as well as giving them training in the techniques of examination-taking; the publishers promise reprints on demand, so that pupils may write in the book as they do in the examination paper itself.

English for Technical Schools — ORT Publications

Technical glossaries (English—Hebrew) are available from ORT (39/41, Shderot Hamelech David, Tel Aviv) for MECHANICS, ELECTRONICS & ELECTRICITY, and for BUILDING & ARCHITECTURE. The following publications (experimental internal editions only) have been issued in the ORT VOCATIONAL ENGLISH series:

1. English for Students of Computers, Advanced Level Part I: by S. Lipstein
2. English for Students of Electronics: by S. Lipstein
3. English for Students of Mechanics, Step I: by Rita Dick
4. English for Students of Mechanics, Advanced Level: by S. Lipstein
5. English for Students of Optics: by Rita Dick
6. English for Students of Non-Technical Vocations (girls): by Anna Sotto

"Office Situations" — new books in the series

The following booklets have now been published in this series for the Secretarial Trend (GEMER level, but also suitable for introductory material in classes for Bagrut):

1. LETTER WRITING
2. DIRECTIONS
3. THE RECEPTIONIST
4. IN THE OFFICE
5. HANDLING MAIL
6. FILING

These booklets are obtainable from the Institute for Teaching Aids, Rehov Ibn Gvirol 119, Tel Aviv 64047, (opposite "Shekem"), Tel. 03-223711.

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
English Inspectorate
mourns the death of
RUHAMA REGBERG-MORAG
former Inspector, teacher-trainer and author of textbooks for teaching English in Israel

New Publication — "Jewish Festivals" (חגי ישראל)

This long-awaited publication of resource material for teachers is now in the press and should be available by the time this issue of the JOURNAL is printed. Contents: activities, illustrations, explanations, reading passages, games, exercises etc. on the subject of the Jewish Holidays and Festivals. Each page has been prepared in such a way that an "electronic stencil" may be made from it for photocopying at school or in the local Pedagogic Centre of the Minisstry. The publication is for teachers only — a "book of suggestions" for different Grades and levels; it is based on the original material written by Miriam Kishon and Rivka Lustig (see the JOURNAL, No. 25, July 1981).

The publication is obtainable from the National Pedagogic Centre, price 150 shekels. Arrangements for payment are as follows:

יש לשלם בבנק הדואר את מחיר החומר והמיזמן, לסקודת משרד החינוך, המרכזים המדגוגיים, חשבון מס' 5-10410-0. את העתק הקבלה יש לשלוח לעורא מורחי, מרכזיים מדגוגיים, משרד החינוך, רחד המלך 8, ירושלים 91911. יש לרשום את שם המריץ המזומן, מספר העותקים המבוקש, והמצען למשלוח החומר.

פרטים נוספים בטלפון: 02-238331, 02-238334, 02-238348

Choosing Textbooks for Your Class

(see the article on this subject by Raphael Gefen in the JOURNAL, No. 24, December 1980)

Teachers are reminded that they must select textbooks only from the Official List sent to schools annually by the Department for the Approval of Textbooks. If they wish to use a book not on that List (for experimental purposes, remedial work etc.), they must obtain the approval of the English Inspector for the school. This List is drawn up after careful and exhaustive evaluation and deliberation by a number of Readers. Books not on this List are either books from abroad, not intended for Israeli pupils and not written in accordance with the principles or the contents of the English Curriculum and therefore not suitable for our schools, or Israeli books which have not been submitted to the Department for the Approval of Textbooks or have been submitted and *rejected*. Books for extensive reading in English are not included in this List, but in this case teachers are asked to use their pedagogical judgment and make sure that these Readers in simplified English do not offend educational values (many of them seem to contain excessive scenes of violence, for example) and are in accordance with the principles of the English Curriculum.

Repeat Notice: TEACHING THE PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH, revised and edited by Raphael Gefen

This handbook for teachers and guide to the English Curriculum for Israel schools is available from שירות ההפצה של סיירסומי תמשלה, רח' דוד אלעזר 29, הקריה, תל־אביב 67673 price 53 shekels, including postage. New teachers (especially new immigrant teachers from English-speaking countries, whose academic training in their countries of origin was not in Applied Linguistics or Teaching English as a Foreign Language) and students will find it particularly useful.

The book outlines the role of teaching grammar in the curriculum and argues for teaching grammar as a meaningful, contextualized activity, integrated with the teaching of the language skills (and in so doing, clarifies the difference between a "pedagogical" and a "scientific" grammar). The book also contains a detailed linguistic analysis of the various Grammar Structures (all taught in the form of meaningful sentence patterns not as abstract rules) taught at the different levels of schooling in Israel. Wherever necessary, didactic advice is given and potential difficulties due to mother-tongue interference are indicated. Teacher-trainers and teacher-counsellors are especially called upon to make sure their "charges" buy a copy of this book (together with the Curriculum itself); student-teachers should be required to use this book as part of their reading and study for papers they

will be writing on the teaching of English grammar or on the linguistic analysis of various English syntactic structures from the pedagogical point of view.

N.B. Please note the following erratum: page 9, line 17 — delete entire line "subtle differences . . . to" and replace by: "not involve the systematic translation of sentences from the one language to".

NEWSPAPERS FOR USE IN SCHOOLS

STUDENT POST / HEY, THERE !

"Student Post" and *"Hey, There !"* are *The Jerusalem Post* youth magazines.

Student Post is intended for good tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades. *Hey, There !* is intended for both regular Intermediate Division classes and older, weaker pupils.

These two magazines are written by professional journalists and English teachers. The editorial staff also works closely with an advisory board of senior teachers.

Both magazines are edited by Susan Belios Minkowich. They come out nine times a year.

For further information please write to *Student Post* or *Hey, There!*, The Jerusalem Post, P.O.B. 81, Jerusalem 91000 or call 02-528181.

GOOD TIMES

P.O. Box 3576, Jerusalem, Tel.: 02-525353

Publishers of special newspapers in simplified English, *Good Times, Just For You, ABC Times.*

GOOD TIMES for Grades 7, 8, 9
JUST FOR YOU for Grades 6, weaker 7
ABC TIMES for Grades 5, weaker 6, good Grade 4.

With each issue of GOOD TIMES and JUST FOR YOU there is a free Teacher's Guide containing suggestions for the effective use of the material. The newspapers appear in nine monthly issues over the school year (September-June).

The English Curriculum for Schools

The Curriculum (Grades 5-12) is available from 'Maalot' publishers, price at the time of going to print 10.00 shekels (not including postage). Every teacher should have a copy of the Curriculum, and Teacher-Trainers and Teacher-Counsellors should also ensure that their 'charges' have a copy. The Curriculum

is an indispensable part of the programme for studies for Teacher-Training (Pre-Service and In-Service). The address of the publishers is: Carlebach 29, Tel Aviv (Tel.: 03-284191). Individual copies of the Curriculum can be obtained from the branch of the publishers at Rehov Borochov 20, Te' Aviv. Schools may order copies by means of the form sent to them from the Curriculum Centre, Ministry of Education and Culture. Price for bulk orders (10 copies or more, direct from the publishers)7.84 shekels per copy (not including postage).

New Publication: EMT READER

The "English Matriculation Texts (EMT)" series (editor Alice Shalvi) has now brought out two Readers containing the set texts for the Bagrut examination (no essays), one for the 5-point level and the other for the 4-point level. The anthologies contain plays, games and short stories, together with glossaries and accompanying comprehension exercises. Some of the full-length plays in the syllabus are available in separate EMT editions.

In addition to the set texts, supplementary literary works have been included (not in the syllabus), as well as explanatory material on both authors and texts. "In an attempt to demonstrate that the syllabus is not a random collection of individual works, we have presented them gathered in a series of study-units, loosely linking a number of items which either share a common theme or illustrate a particular literary device, method or genre " (from the Editor's Foreword).

Pen-Pal Correspondence with U.S. Pupils

The International Cultural Centre for Youth (Ms. Ettie Moskowitz), 12, Emek Refaim, Jerusalem 91080, P.O.B. 8009, together with the English Inspectorate of the Ministry of Education, are sponsoring a pen-pal correspondence campaign in schools (Grades 8 upwards) to correspond with U.S. pupils; this educational activity will not only improve pupils' English and serve an authentic communicative function, but will broaden their cultural horizons and enhance international understanding and friendship.

The *first* letters from our pupils can be sent via the ICCY above; they will send the letters on to schools in the U.S.A. Answers will be sent direct to the pupil here.

Teachers wishing to take part in this activity should explain the value of this correspondence, instruct classes in how to write letters in English, and also discuss with the pupils the possible contents of their letters.

The ICCY will be pleased to send the teachers (for subsequent loan to pupils) booklets in Hebrew on this theme of correspondence, including model letters in English.

Izzy Smart — a programme for weak learners in Grades 8-9, Project NETA, Tel-Aviv University

The NETA (ניסוי לטיפוח תל־יסודי) Project at the School of Education, Tel-Aviv University, with the backing of the Curriculum Centre, Ministry of Education, has produced two series for weak learners of English: ENGLISH IS FUN, Units A—E (for Grades 7 and 8) and THE ADVENTURES OF IZZY SMART (for Grades 8 and 9). The "hero" of the IZZY SMART series is an amateur detective who gets involved in all kind of strange adventures; the stories are presented in "comic"-cartoon format in order to provide visual reinforcement for the strictly-controlled vocabulary used. Each unit contains a storybook, cards for oral work, flashcards, reading cards, games and other activity pages; a cassette accompanies the series. Five units are available:

1. Where Are My Bags?
2. Where Is That Waiter?
3. Where Is Our Guide?
4. Where Can I Work? (new)
5. Reading for Information (new)

THE ENGLISH SYLLABUS AND EXAMINATION REQUIREMENTS FOR THE SECRETARIAL TREND (GEMER AND BAGRUT)

The following requirements have been approved by the English Inspectorate and the Inspectorate for the Secretarial-Management Trend, Ministry of Educetion and Culture.

1. *GEMER EXAMINATION*

a) this examination is obligatory both for students in the MASMAR (מסמ"ר) and in the MASMAT-GEMER (מסמ"ת־גמר) classes.

b) textbooks: the series "OFFICE SITUATIONS" for commercial English; in addition, a textbook in general English for GEMER level, selected from the Official List.

c) External Examination (question-paper 108241): Reading Comprehension (objective answers (multiple-choice, etc.) in English); Reading Comprehension (open-ended answers in Hebrew); Language Exercises (e.g. cloze test with the missing words selected from a list provided; filling in the missing questions in a dialogue). Examinees may use an English-Hebrew dictionary during the examination.

d) Internal Examination (question-paper 108741):

1. reading comprehension: one paragraph from one of the booklets studied in the series "OFFICE SITUATIONS"; students will prepare for the examination by the intensive study of TWO of the booklets in the series, the other booklets being studied less intensively. Examination requirement: gist in Hebrew or open-ended question-answers in Hebrew.
2. reading comprehension (100 words) from material not previously studied ("Unseen"), e.g. an advertisement, a message, a dialogue. Examination requirement: gist in Hebrew or open-ended question-answers in Hebrew.
3. English-Hebrew glossary (i.e. the list of terms in commercial English found at the end of each booklet in the series "OFFICE SITUATIONS"); 100 such terms to be learnt. Examination requirement: translate into Hebrew 10 out of the 20 commercial terms given.
4. Oral-aural test (interview or role-playing).

2. *BAGRUT EXAMINATION — THREE POINT SPECIAL PAPER FOR THE SECRETARIAL TREND* (paper 908563)

a) External examination only (i.e. no accompanying internal examination).

b) Textbooks and Syllabus:

1. textbook in general English for the Bagrut level, selected from the Official List.
2. book of readings in commercial English (now in preparation) for use in Israel schools; preparatory material (Grade 10 and early in Grade 11) — the series "OFFICE SITUATIONS" (see INFORMATION FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS in this issue of the JOURNAL). Two articles from the book of readings to be studied intensively.
3. English-Hebrew glossary of commercial English (now in preparation — about 250 items; 150 items to be learnt).
4. Reading Literary Texts — two short stories or one drama, from the Syllabus.

c) Examination requirements:

1. oral examination
2. listening comprehension
3. reading comprehension (answers in English)
4. filling in questions in a dialogue

} as in the Regular Question Paper for Three Points

5. writing a guided commercial letter (e.g. answering a letter, given in full); 100 words

6. reading comprehension: gist in Hebrew (or open-ended answers in Hebrew to questions about the text) of an advertisement or announcement; explaining in Hebrew the meanings of 10 out of 20 terms in commercial English (all in the context of sentences).

Parts 5 and 6 above come instead of the second reading comprehension passage and the cloze passage in the Regular Question-Paper for Three Points. Examinees are allowed to use an ENGLISH-ENGLISH dictionary recommended by the Inspectorate during the examination.

Note: for the Summer 1983 date only examinees may sit either for the Regular paper (paper 908543) or for the Special Secretarial paper (paper 908563). For the Summer 1984 date and subsequent dates, they must sit for the Special paper only.

3. *BAGRUT EXAMINATION — FOUR POINT EXAMINATION* (908643)

a) Textbooks and Syllabus:

1. textbook in general English for the Bagrut level, selected from the official List.
2. book of readings in commercial English (see paragraph 2b2 above); additional material in commercial English from other sources.
3. English-Hebrew glossary of commercial English — all 250 items to be learnt.
4. Reading Literary Texts — two short stories or one drama, from the Syllabus.

b) Examination requirements — External examination (908643)
Students sit for the same External examination as all other four-point examinees.

1. oral examination
2. listening comprehension
3. reading comprehension (answers in English)
4. reading compprehension (answers in Hebrew)
5. language exercises (cloze passage, filling in questions in a dialogue) at a level higher than in the three-point paper

Examinees may use an ENGLISH-ENGLISH dictionary, recommended by the Inspectorate, during the examination.

c) Internal examination (see INFORMATION FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS in this issue of the JOURNAL):

1. length of the examination: 1½ hours.
2. for the Summer 1983 date only, Secretarial Trend students may sit either for an Internal examination in commercial English or for one in Reading

Literary Texts; for the Summer 1984 date and subsequently they must sit for the examination in commercial English only.

3. examination requirements in commercial English:
   a) writing a commercial letter (e.g. answering a letter) at a higher level than at the three point level;
   b) gist in Hebrew (or open-ended answers in Hebrew) of a passage (1–2 paragraphs) from an article studied (see section 3a2 above); students study six articles from the book of readings in commercial English (see section 3a2 above);
   c) reading comprehension ("unseen"): gist in Hebrew or open-ended answers in Hebrew (length of passage -- 200 words);
   d) explaining in Hebrew the meanings of 15 out of 30 terms in commercial English from the glossary learnt (section 3a3 above), all in the context of sentences.

Examinees may use an ENGLISH-HEBREW dictionary during the examination. See INFORMATION FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS in this issue of the JOURNAL regarding approval by the Inspectorate of the syllabus and the examination paper.

3. NEWS FROM R.I.C.H.

by *Ora Zohar*, Hebrew University

Perceiving the 11th and 12th Grades as an ideal setting for serious discussion led to the creation of RICH: a series of four to five lesson units each built around a particular theme, providing texts and exercises in which language skills are involved in a search for meaning. Each unit attempts to provide structured opportunities for reading, talking and thinking about cardinal issues with the young people we teach. Our interest lies less in any particular "answer" than in legitimizing the asking of questions.

The major innovations of RICH are the use of a variety of teaching techniques, the introduction of Jewish and Hebrew sources into the English classroom and the raising of contemporary humanistic concerns.

To date, there are four units being taught by about one hundred teachers and a fifth unit now in press. Over 5,000 pupils from all over the country in both "Religious" and "General" schools are studying the RICH material. The themes of the Units are:

Unit 1 — The Value of Life
Unit 2 — The Family
Unit 3 — Decision making (choice)
Unit P — (Purim) Humor
Unit 4 — Old Age

Feedback from both pupils and teachers has been encouraging. Here are several samples:

Teacher Feedback

"The classes that have had the privilege of working on the RICH units have benefited greatly; almost all the pupils prefer these units to any other material they have experienced and I have enjoyed the sharing with them".

Pamela Friedland
Ruppin High School, Emek Hefer.

" 'Making decisions in life' is not a new theme in my classes — a story such as 'Eveline' could hardly be taught without referring to the question of choice and the circumstances that influence it; but there was new material in Unit Three which would not have otherwise come to hand. This new material, especially the poetry and quotes from Jewish sources, provided interest, cause for reflection and involvement for the students who were confronted with ideas and questions that had individual and personal significance. The discussions showed this clearly; the pupils were able to be themselves."

Moshe Feingold
Ironi Gimmel, Haifa.

"I believe that, in general, the class enjoyed the material and the activities and found the issues involved far more stimulating than any in the other material they study (i.e. the Bagrut literature, unseens and language). They seem to be looking forward to further units".

Irene Berman
Ulpanat Tsfira, Beit Dagan.

"The content of the RICH Units was *rich* indeed from all points of view permitting selectivity, gradation of difficulties and more than that — analysis of human feelings; my pupils enriched themselves as human beings".

Felicia Silva
Tichon Ironi Dati, Rishon le Zion

Pupil Feedback

"It was also interesting to see how in short proverbs our ancestors could express main ideas about life and how they are similar to the ideas of people of different age from different parts of the world. We also see that one has a problem and the other has a solution for it. I think it was good bringing us passages from books without making them easier, so we could really see how we can face a new English text".

"The subject about choices reminds me of myself that I always don't know what to do between two choices, and always I say yes, no, yes, no, for a long time. I never know how to decide about something without thinking a long time. That is the reason that I enjoyed it so much".

"It's interesting to find that in different nations human problems are the same. People from different background wonder about the aim in their life, finding their way choosing the wright way. People write the same ideas in different ways; they have different ways to express themselves, essays, stories, poetry. Poetry, it's the way which I liked best".

"This booklet deals in subjects which are related to each of us, for we have to decide about our ways in life. . . . One more interesting thing about this booklet is it's proverbs in Hebrew. When we read them we tried to find their relation to what we read, and we felt it very close to us. I hope other teachers will continue to teach it, because when I learned it I enjoyed it. It helped me not only as an English subject but it gave me understanding in choosing my own decisions in life".

4. MORE COMMENTS ON THE USE OF TRANSLATION

I. ENGLISH THROUGH HEBREW

by *Asher Harris*, Pardess Hanna

On page 20 of the last (No. 27) issue of ETJ, Elana Shohamy states, "Testing helps implement the curriculum." Surely not! Testing *dictates* the curriculum. Any experienced teacher knows that with the best will in the world to teach the oficial programme in effect you teach what you know will be tested. When the Bagrut examination contained Reported Speech — that was what we taught. When "word-families" were the order of the day, we taught them. I still have my stencils in reserve for the day when the pendulum swings that way again.

So now we teach Questions in Dialogues and cloze techniques, and from now on we shall have to polish up sentence structures of miscellaneous types (including, apparently, Reported Speech and "word-families"!) Far less importance will be attached to Literature, which is a pity. Somewhere I read that for a large proportion of our pupils, we English teachers are the only ones who have the opportunity to "hold up a mirror to life", and now we are going to have this pleasure severely curtailed, too.

Instead we shall have to teach translation. After years of learning and preaching that "language learning is not like building a wall — it is more like driving a car" (Shella Been, ETJ, No. 26, p. 35), that you can only learn to swim by swimming, to ride a bicycle by riding a bicycle and to use a language by using the language (Asher Harris, passim), we have to go back to Latin and Greek,

or even German as I learnt it at school — "Uebersetzen Sie, Herr Harris!" Mind you, I recently discovered that the present generation of classical students at High School level, in England, has newspapers in Latin; Latin, mark you, a dead language by all accounts.

We all use Hebrew in the classroom, even the most diehard Direct Methodist. The Direct Method does not absolutely proscribe the use of the vernacular. It does not imply that when doing a particularly difficult comprehension passage, we are forbidden to encourage our students to "worry out" a meaning in Hebrew for an unfamiliar word or phrase. The use of Hebrew can often shorten the process of understanding and guarantee a certain amount of confidence that the point has been taken.

However, from here to including translation in the Bagrut Examination is such a long step that it will lead to a revolution in teaching and teaching methods and in the training of the next generation of English teachers (Raphael Gefen, ETJ No. 27, pp. 14-15). Again, there is a big difference between "Can you tell me what he wants in this letter?" or "How does this thing work?" on the one hand, and "Translate the following words and phrases into Hebrew (or Arabic)" on the other. Instead of Hebrew being a last resort, it becomes a method. Instead of having a pang of conscience when we relapse into Hebrew, we are being encouraged, nay forced to get our pupils to use it, and in consequence ourselves too. Then there can really be no objection to allowing the use of a good English-Hebrew dictionary either.

Incidentally, John Oller, the authority who is cited by a number of contributors to the discussion in ETJ No. 27 is not much of a support. He is quoted by Raphael Gefen (p. 14) as giving "the following examples of pragmatic tests". There follows a list of no less than eleven such tests, of which translation is the last, after such items as cloze, dictation (how much of that is there around?), oral interview and essay writing (guided).

To sum up, I am not against the use of Hebrew in class, for teaching, for clarifying, for increasing confidence, as long as I feel that I am "resorting" to Hebrew. We must feel, and our students must feel through us, that the use of Hebrew in the English lesson is a concession. As soon as you legitimize the use of Hebrew, it will be almost impossible to dam the flow from these weaker pupils who now struggle painfully but courageously to string a few words together for the sake of communication. I am afraid that if we give Hebrew the *prestige* of being an official part of the Bagrut examination יצא שכרו בהשמוד.

P.S. In the four lessons where I have tried the new Reading Comprehension system (i.e. reading comprehension expressed through open-ended Hebrew answers) in my 12th grade classes the result was a more or less running translation of the whole passage.

II. SOME COMMENTS ON THE PROPOSAL TO INTRODUCE TRANSLATION

by *Merton Dagut*, Haifa University

I am strongly in favour of a more reasonable and less taboo-ridden attitude to the use of translation as a teaching and learning *aid* (not aim). I am convinced that all *school learning* of a foreign language proceeds inevitably through the mediation of the learner's mother-tongue and that all attempts to keep the mother-tongue out of the learning process are simply self-deception. I know that the theoretical pendulum has swung away from Contrastive Analysis, but I find the presently fashionable "cognitive" theories remote from classroom practicalities and singularly insensitive to the uniqueness of the learner's mother-tongue as an integral part of his personality. Yet, in spite of all this, my reaction to the proposal is rather hesitant — and that mainly for the reason given in Raphael Gefen's article: that translation qua translation is a distinct skill and moreover one that requires a high degree of proficiency in both of the languages in question. Since the overwhelming majority of our Bagrut pupils fall short of the proficiency required, it seems to me that including translation as a *compulsory* part of the Bagrut syllabus could only result in lowered attainment, through the imposition of a task beyond the capabilities of most of the examinees and one which moreover would probably hamper, rather than facilitate, their progress in the control of English as an instrument of communication. My personal experience has shown me that the second year at university is quite early enough for a serious translation course (of the kind proposed for students and teachers in Raphael Gefen's article).

Perhaps translation might be made an additional *option* for the best pupils or for special classes of advanced pupils (what used to be called תרגום מגמתית). But, in general, it seems to me that even the top form at school is too early a stage to embark on the complexities of interlingual and intercultural translation. To put the matter to the test, how about trying a pilot project with a small number of pupils selected on a qualitative basis?

In conclusion, I would like to point out, while I am in full agreement with the "practical" consequences" listed in Raphael Gefen's article, I consider his second "practical consequence" (in-service courses for teachers in translation — interpreting this to mean courses in Contrastive Analysis), his third consequence (courses in translation for student-teachers) and his fourth consequence (teachers must be proficient in both mother-tongue and foreign language) to be fully operative. I have never understood how one can teach English effectively and empathetically to Hebrew-speakers without knowing Hebrew and being able to compare it to English. Most of these requirements are met by the course given

at Haifa University in Translation and Contrastive Analysis (compulsory for intending teachers), although there is plenty of room for improvement, of course.

III. REFLECTIONS ON THE USE AND MISUSE OF TRANSLATION

by *Isaac Morris*, author of the "English by Stages" series of textbooks, and "The Art of Teaching English as a Living Language", former teacher for many years at the Hebrew University.

GENERAL COMMENTS

Having long ceased activity in the teaching of English in the local schools, I was naturally diffident about accepting the invitation to contribute my views on a controversial question.

Judging from the level of the treatment of the subject in the previous issue of the JOURNAL, which I studied with interest and admiration, I hesitate to offer a contribution which derives mainly from practical experience based on principles from what I may now refer to as the pioneering stage.

The subject under discussion is the broad question of translation as a means and as a possible aim (for undoubtedly free translation from one language to another is a special skill which should be considered as an additional aim that may or may not be justified for inclusion in the curriculum).

I have chosen to concentrate on the use of L1, here "Hebrew", as a means, which in my approach is in effect a possible modification of the Direct Method, adopted after a long struggle to replace the firmly established Translation Method.

But first it would be well to consider the challenging opinion of one of the contributors. * I quote the declarations:

(1) "of all the variables that contribute to a class's success in learning a language the method used may be one of the least significant".
(2) "of course it matters. But not because one method is intrinsically better than another".

Admittedly the subject of language teaching is extremely difficult because of the numerous variables that constitute factors any of which may be decisive or in some degree affect "efficiency" as, so ably, defined by the author of the article as "the most favourable ratio of profit (achieved proficiency) to cost (time and work)".

---

* Penny Ur in "Efficiency in Language" (p. 22).

While endorsing the stress on variables as contributory factors I am surprised at the absence of any reference to text-books as a factor calling for consideration.

Presumably the writer would regard the text-book, particularly with an accompanying teacher's book for guidance at every step, as a deplorable means of imposing a "system" or even a "Method" of instruction. Nevertheless, the use of a text-book is indispensable, provided, however, that it is restricted to the presentation of language matter on acceptable principles of vocabulary selection, and introduces the grammatical forms in a satisfactory and pedagogical order. Thus the text-book is a possible decisive factor ensuring successful progression, but it is also potentially a disastrous obstacle to 'efficiency'.

With automation steadily encroaching on all spheres, including the classroom, there is a danger of the role of the teacher being unduly reduced. In those schools proceeding, however, on more or less traditional lines, the instructor can still play a role if she (or he) is truly efficient and imaginative. Whatever the general method, it is the teacher who has to apply appropriate devices; and I would even claim that it is the early stages that call for the highest skill of foreign language teaching by establishing a sound foundation.

Before attempting to suggest modification of the Direct Method, or rather the use of the first language (L1) as an aid, I offer the following quotation from acknowledged authorities whose opinions are expressed in chapter III of the book "Linguistic Theories and their Application" * which includes a paper on Translation and Language Teaching by J. C. Catford, with comments by other specialists.

Catford, page 140:

"I referred at the start to the reluctance of language teachers to use translation in their teaching. It is not translation in itself which is dangerous, but the misuse of translation, or the use of bad translation".

Catford, page 142:

"In the classroom translation has been or may be used for various purposes: these include (1) the initial presentation of meanings, (2) the consolidation of learning by translation exercises, (3) the testing of progress".

One intervener (Mr. Girard) makes the following categorial declaration (p. 150): "We declare that translation must be completely vanished from the beginners' classes for reasons we have already given. But let us be quite clear what we are saying, there is no question at all of suppressing translation at all levels of language learning".

---

* Published by Council for Cultural Co-operation, Acdela 1967.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS

Notwithstanding the last quoted declaration, I do not hesitate to recommend the free employment of Hebrew at the outset of the course — for a strictly limited purpose, of course.

With speech as a major aim the achievement, however satisfactory as to fluency and grammatical accuracy, may be drastically marred by the inability of the pupil to reproduce non-jarring English (or American) vocal sounds; if this should be the case, then the fault must assuredly lie in the neglect of the feature in the early stages and subsequently neglected throughout the course.

It should be obvious that it is imperative to make the pupils initially aaware of the characteristic sounds of the new language and the importance of reproducing them as demonstrated by the teacher.

This calls for the allocation of several lessons, conducted in Hebrew, to the treatment of the new sounds, and the adoption of appropriate devices for the purpose. There is scope here for original devices — more-or-less on the lines I propose.

I suggest that the teacher devote the first lesson to a talk about the difficulties the pupils will encounter in tackling a new medium of communication. The primary and perhaps most difficult feature to be dealt with is the reproduction of vocal sounds that are not used in Hebrew. Attention may then be drawn to the use in English of a word that has no corresponding item in Hebrew. I refer to the articles: a, an. The point should be demonstrated immediately (I have a book — יש לי ספר) Above all, the talk should explain the nature and purpose of the proposed application of the Direct Method.

I further suggest that the sounds be not dealt with systematically as meaningless sounds to be exercised. Interest and efficiency can be better attained if meaningful words are chosen to demonstrate the employment of the sound. The list (with Hebrew equivalents given incidentally) can serve the additional purpose of anticipating their subsequent use in the early lessons conducted strictly on Direct Method lines, e.g. Yes, No, Say, What? When? Where? This, That, Now.

Two last points may be considered as useful devices:

(I) The addition of words and phrases which can serve the additional purpose of giving the class a feeling of accomplishment in the new medium.
(e.g. Please, Thank you, right, wrong, again, question, answer, very good, good morning, teacher.)

(II) The explanation and demonstration of the colloquial abbreviations as commonly used: e.g. it isn't (for 'it is not')
I don't know (for 'I do not know').

Later, at the appropriate stage when questions are asked and answered, I suggest that only the colloquial form should be used.
e.g. What's this? It's a pen.

Is this a pen? No, it isn't.

The full form can be mentioned by the teacher but be presented only at the reading stage.

USE & MISUSE OF TRANSLATION

Once the Direct Method has been started, the question of translation first arises when the reading stage is reached. The first stage can fully dispense with the aid of L1, as actions can be demonstrated and objects can be displayed both from those in the classroom or brought in. All this implies a pre-reading stage with no textbook for the pupils.

It is at the next stage, when the speech vocabulary has been first covered and fresh vocabulary has been dealt with, that the question of modifying the Direct Method by the employment of translation arises. As the pupil has not yet acquired an adequate vocabulary for definition or description one should not even attempt to avoid the offer of a Hebrew equivalent of the word as contextually used. (I prefer to use "equivalent" to "meaning" as it is generally acknowledged that no word in one language has the absolute meaning of the word as used by the other language in all contexts.) Offering a Hebrew equivalent at this stage is undoubtedly an example of the need to consider "efficiency" as a guiding principle.

An example of the possible misuse of translation particularly in the early stages is the inclusion of the Hebrew equivalent in the text (bracketed with the word) or even as a marginal insertion. The obvious alternative is to provide a glossary at the end of the book for reference, with Hebrew if needed.

In the reference to the reading text only the question of how to deal with fresh vocabulary has been noted. There is another feature, however, which, to my mind, is a subtle infringement of the purpose of the Direct Method. I refer to the choice of subject matter of purely local interest, often requiring the inclusion of words of extremely low frequency value.

This is not to be taken as the exclusion of local subject matter from the course at any stage. On the contrary, for the other declared aim of speaking, the local conditions offer favourable incentives for speech with possible inclusion of words not required at that stage for general application. In this country, for instance, dialogues may be practised for helping tourists by directing them to requested destinations.

PROBLEMS OF GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION

The question of the use of Hebrew as an aid in the teaching of grammar is more complex than with reading. In the interest of 'efficiency' I would curtail the attention devoted to the theoretical, systematic aspects and rely more on the practical application of the grammatical forms. Likewise I would recommend concentration on major items as determining the basic objectives of the various stages.

The order of representation of grammatical forms is another feature which calls for consideration and choice. Take, for example, the adoption of the Continuous or the Simple as the first tense at the initial application of the Direct Method which calls for demonstrative actions. Here the Continuous is undoubtedly more appropriate, e.g. I am standing. I am walking to the door. There are, nevertheless, objections which favour the prior introduction of the Simple tense. In the first place it is shorter and therefore easier to reproduce at the initial stage. Secondly the switch to the negative of the Simple is decidedly a difficult transition for the pupil who has to approach it after his adoption of the Continuous as the standard equivalent of the Hebrew Present.

[There is another point which I should like to raise as a reminder of an earlier suggestion. I refer to the colloquial abbreviations for use as introduction forms and subsequently in all speech practice lessons, e.g. I don't, I'm, isn't, can't, won't, shouldn't.]

It has always impressed me that pupils in succeeding years apply the Past-Perfect tense correctly ... cannot equally master the use of the Present-Perfect. Obviously there is a psychological reason accounting for the difficulty. (Incidentally all errors should be traced to a psychological source and be averted by anticipation.) Here the cause is undoubtedly the inability to reconcile the use of the Present tense with a past action. In other words the error here is due to the absence of the Perfect in Hebrew.

How should we tackle the psychological problems, in Hebrew or English?

One of the contributors to the previous issue of the JOURNAL does so with the aid of translation, thus: (אתמול ראיתי את התצוגה (מתי ? אתמול. זמן הפעולה ידוע) ראיתי את התצוגה (מתי ? לא ידוע, לא מעניין. העיקר הוא שעכשיו אינני רוצה לברוא איתך לתיאטרון) *

For comparison I offer an alternative treatment of the item along Direct Method lines. We start with examples in English:

Is your work finished?
Have you finished your work?

---

* Pnina Rosenblith, p. 16.

These two questions can receive the same response, because it is clear that they are both requests only about the completion of the action.

If at the opening of a conversation the question was "Did you finish your work?" the response then would be "when?". Obviously to the English ear the use of the Past tense implies reference to a particular action the completion of which is not in question.

I offer a clearer situational example, in the form of a dialogue:

John: I have lost my keys and don't know where they are.
Joan (his wife, after a search): Here they are.
John: Where did you find them?
Joan: They were near your desk.

As the Past-Participle is required for the Perfect tense it seems to me that the passive should precede the presentation of both Perfect tenses.

With the absence of this grammatical form (the Perfect) in Hebrew, there is certainly need of translation from Hebrew into English to ensure that the student can choose the correct tense. The Hebrew sentence must, of course, supply clues which language L1 must employ to convey the same message. (I must draw attention here to the growing tendency in American dialogue to avoid the use of the Present-Perfect, so it may not be essential to consider the substitution of the Past for Present-Perfect as misleading in a clear context.)

TRANSLATION AS AN AIM FOR EXAMINATION

I now come to the original and crucial question of translation as a separate aim and a subject for inclusion in the Bagrut examination.

As I am completely ignorant of the standard achievements in Israeli schools I can only present selected opinions of external and local specialists on the subject as my contribution.

First there is Mr. Girard's opinion expressed on page 140 of Linguistic Theories (already referred to as a valuable source of international cooperation).

> "At the most advanced level we are convinced that it [translation] becomes on the contrary an extremely useful exercise (both translation into the foreign language and from the foreign language) on condition that the technique of translation be correctly taught."
> But once again, this is but one aspect of "language teaching, which is only valid at an advanced level and which has its own peculiarities. Translation assumes a perfect knowledge of the two languages under consideration".

I prefer to conclude with opinions from local sources as more reliable because of their being based on knowledge of the conditions prevailing here.

> From Elana Shohamy, School of Education, Tel-Aviv:
>
> "I personally do not think that translation should be taught as a goal for Israel Secondary school students. I do not think there are enough situations in real life that provide a justification for teaching it to Israeli students."
>
> From Zilla Kratter, Rene Cassin School, Jerusalem:
>
> "I am afraid that legalising translation in the English lesson will make it systematic and in the long run will not be beneficial"

And lastly and for me the most impressive is the opinion expressed by Sheila Been and Dvora Ben-Meir, from the Instructional Television Centre:

> "We agree that while there is some public opinion favouring the ability to translate, there is probably an equal public opinion which would be satisfied with developing co-ordinate bilinguals. The main difficulty, in our opinion, is to develop these co-ordinate bilinguals, and to introduce the skill of translation would not only create additional difficulties, but might prejudice the primary goal. There is danger that the time devoted to the learning of translation skills would be at the expense of time devoted to more crucial language skills".

5. TEACHING ENGLISH TO THE "DISADVANTAGED" — WHAT DO TEACHERS THINK, AND HOW DOES THIS AFFECT THEIR CLASSROOM RELATIONSHIPS?

by *Helen Levenston*, Jerusalem

The people who came from all over Israel to the ETAI summer school that was held in July on Mt. Scopus, and those Jerusalem teachers who attended the local branch meeting at the Boyar School in September, may recall that they were asked to fill out a questionnaire called 'How do English teachers feel about their work?' Here is an explanation of its purpose, and some conclusions.

It was designed to inquire into the factors that affect success in teaching English to — for want of a better term — 'disadvantaged' pupils (to be referred to here as DA, following the Minkovitch et al, study). Theories abound at all levels, but surely a significant factor is the attitudes held by the classroom English teacher, the person who has the most contact with the DA. What she thinks of them is bound to affect classroom relationships. And she measures her 'success' not solely by the pupils' progress in achieving a command of grammar and vocabulary,

but by her subjective feeling of the degree of rapport she achieves with her classes: if she gets satisfaction from her work, and expects the pupils to continue to develop then the indispensable basis for learning exists.

Excluded from consideration in this article are two elements of TEFL to DA that are weighty topics in themselves: the actual subject matter — it is assumed all teachers are competent speakers with an adequate knowledge of language structure — and the behavior of some extremely neurotic pupils, which ought not to be the teacher's responsibility as much as it is. The focus of interest is rather the degree of understanding of the child's background that the teacher brings to the classroom, and whether as a consequence the pupils have more positive reactions to the teacher and the subject. One way of assessing their reactions is by means of the teacher's impressions.

The Makeup of the Questionnaire

The questions were in six groups, designed to elicit the following information:

1. the teacher's own educational and professional background;
2. her teaching experience in Israel;
3. her perception of the various attitudes to English lessons held by a) pupils, and b) other subject teachers;
4. her estimation of the value of her task as an English teacher and the amount of faith she has in her pupils' ability to change;
5. what most troubled her in her working conditions;
6. the teacher's opinion of what was the greatest single cause for the pupils' difficulty in learning English.

Results

— 1. Out of seventy-four who gave answers, thirty nine had English as their mother tongue, twelve were Hebrew speakers, the rest were native speakers of one or another of ten European languages. No-one spoke any variety of Arabic as a mother tongue. Most of them who were native English speakers were personally familiar with lower class culture abroad, but few had had teaching experience with DA abroad. Most of the teachers had been trained in Israel, and although half of the speakers had been trained in English-speaking countries, it can be assumed that through in-service training sessions they too have become acquainted with some — but possibly not all — of the theoretical and practical aspects of teaching English to DA.

— 2. The answers to the second group of questions indicate that the ETAI meetings appeal to the more experienced teachers, who among other things have had experience with the disadvantaged, but are no longer teaching

them. So in the light of the sixty per cent Jerusalem pupil average of DA, the teachers at those meetings were not statistically representative.

-- 3. There was a difference between the English teachers' perceptions of their pupils' attitude to English and their perceptions of other subject teachers' attitudes to it. The English teachers recorded their impression that while some children find English too difficult most accept the lessons for the conventional reasons — you need English to pass examinations, or for commercial life in Israel, or to be like all the other pupils. On the other hand the English teachers suspected that their colleagues believe that too much importance is given to English in school. Other teachers too probably feel this about their own subjects, but considering the vast lip service paid to English the resulting perceived discrepancy in value, if accurate, would surely colour the child's learning efforts.

-- 4. Rather cheeringly, most teachers believed in the value of teaching English to 'slow' learners, and had a reasonable faith in the pupils' ability to change and develop, given reasonable conditions. There was no difference in this hopeful attitude between teachers trained in Israel or abroad.

— 5. There were a great number of variously phrased answers to 'What most bother you in your working conditions?" An attempt at a rough categorisation does however reduce them to five recurring main complaints: a) classes of forty are too big and heterogenous; b) in general, discipline is poor; c) there are inadequate amenities; d) the principal does not understand the special difficulties of teaching English; e) both management and teachers do not sufficiently care about disadvantaged children, as evidenced by the fact that the least experienced teachers are usually given these classes. Is a causal relationship to be seen between the complaints?

— 6. Question six asked the teachers to rate from 1 to 6 six commonly held preconceptions of causes of learning difficulties: A. A non-European language is spoken at home, B. The pupil is bilingual, C. The pupil does not have private English lessons, D. He has uneducated parents, E. He speaks substandard Hebrew, F. He does not write Hebrew well, G. Any other factor.

The first was rated either very high or very low. The question was not phrased clearly enough to elicit an unambiguous result: either a Hebrew-speaking home is a disadvantage for every learner, or Arabic rather than, say, Czech interferes with English.

The second, 'bilingualism', was not regarded as a difficulty — which is to be expected in a country where most people speak more than one language.

Hardly anyone said they thought that the lack of private lessons was a major source of difficulty, although one wonders how this view 'sits' with the well-known fact that so many students get extra help.

Under 'Any other factor' were a number of comments, all of which could be subsumed under one of them: 'psycho-sociological and psycho-linguistic factors'! I would like to expand on this in the Conclusion.

'Uneducated parents' ranked high, as did 'doesn't write Hebrew well'. But overwhelmingly in first, second or third place was 'He speaks sub-standard Hebrew'. The reasoning appears to be 'can't talk properly — can't think properly ... can't learn another language properly". (52out of 63 who answered). In the light of current linguistic thinking about the nature of non-standard varieties of a language, this reasoning appears faulty. William Labov and others have shown that American children who speak non-standard English, are not inferior to speakers of standard English in their control of their own variety. It is only when confronted by middle-class interviewers, speakers of standard English, and expected to perform in a variety they are not familiar with, that they respond poorly and are judged inadequate in general language ability. It appears that this misconception, no longer blindly accepted in English-speaking countries, is still widespread in Israel. Children without a fluent command of formal Hebrew are judged linguistically handicapped for learning another language, even if they are competent in handling their own informal variety of their native language. The English teacher ought to understand the child's non-standard Hebrew as an expression of identification with his non-establishment family background. Such open identification maintains the child's mental health and should be respected. It alone in no way hinders his learning standard English as a foreign tongue.

In Conclusion

Of course the figures are not statistically reliable. Nevertheless this is the way some teachers declare they feel. To my mind there is significance in the facts that so few teachers of the disadvantaged participated in these professional meetings, considering that they make up 60% of the Jerusalem pupils; and that no teacher gave Arabic as his mother tongue, although that is the cultural background of most of the DA. The teachers seem to have tremendous faith in the children, together with a low opinion of the state of discipline, but are discouraged by the attitudes of their principals towards English lessons, and of other teachers towards the disadvantaged.

The complaint about the children's use of an informal register of Hebrew, and the belief that this is an indicator of their poor foreign language learning ability may be a repetition of the widely-held misconception that for any language there are two varieties, good (correct) and bad (incorrect). Recognition of the fact that all languages, including Hebrew, are made up of a range of co-existing varieties serving different social purposes is still unfortunately only a minority opinion.

On the questionnaire only one person explicitly mentioned the lack of shared cultural assumptions as a hindrance to a DA pupil learning from a middle-class and possibly non-native teacher of English. In this connection I found most illuminating a recent article by Dr. Gloria Sheintuch of Haifa University, 'The Spoken Language of Disadvantaged Children in Israel — A look at some Pragmatic Strategies of Communication'. She quotes research by Professor Larry Davis, also of Haifa, which suggests that the speech of native Hebrew DA is as developed and competent as that of middle-class pupils, when evaluated according to a number of different linguistic criteria. Dr. Sheintuch places these linguistic findings in the context of the negative judgments made about non-standard Hebrew speakers by interviewers who do not share their background, with the resultant lack of 'cooperation' in their dialogue. '..... the differing patterns of linguistic behavior of the children are shown to derive from their different backgrounds and systems of values, which can lead to different probabilistic estimates on their part of speaker intentions and judgments as to what counts as a cooperative reply to a given utterance' (from her Abstract). Their linguistic performance may come across as less intelligent.

This seems to place the onus of responsibility for understanding and communication on the adult teacher. Nevertheless a person who uses only non-standard Hebrew is going to be very limited socially. Current sociolinguistic views point to the need to teach the child to be diglossic, thus giving him an academic and social instrument for cultural and social mobility. Not only the Hebrew teacher, but the English teacher too can help him by non-judgmentally understanding and accepting the way he expresses himself, at the same time as she is teaching him another tongue.

This is part of the answer to the problem of failure of communication. The teacher establishes rapport more easily with middle-class children because they catch on her cultural clues and respond to her unspoken expectations. "It is suggested that the more background the hearer shares with the speaker, the greater his abilities for guessing his intended speech acts and the implications of his various utterances and for making 'correct' judgments as to what would constitute appropriately cooperative behavior." The lack of shared background explains the lack of confidence felt by a DA child that prevents him from giving more than the most literal of replies to the teacher's questions. (cf. Professor Carl Frankenstein's 'boldness'). Indeed if a person tries to use standard, formal Hebrew or English without the appropriate cultural baggage, he makes a fool of himself. (Also noted by Frankenstein).

So bidialecticism goes hand in hand with biculturalism. Naturally the teacher will purvey middle-class establishment culture. However while so doing, she ought to have some understanding of "where the pupil is coming from" — his unspoken

philosophical and social roots — in order to meet him half-way. This means more than her knowing how to prepare cous-cous or hilbe. It means learning some of the history, sociology and philosophy of non-English speaking communities, Jewish or Arab as the case may be. The child himself may not be fully aware of them, but they make him what he is. And if he is aware, he will derive comfort and confidence from being shown how to live in the wider world without being obliged to abandon his own narrower terrain. After all, isn't that what we all do?

6. A SUGGESTION FOR A DIFFERENTIAL SYLLABUS FOR THE "LEAST-ABLE" LEARNERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

by *Raphael Gefen*

Many articles have appeared in issues of the ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL over the years, dealing with teaching English to weak learners and suggesting various methodological, psychological and curricular principles and strategies. This interest in the subject clearly indicates the concern of very many teachers of English for the educational progress of their pupils, viewing English not only as a body of knowledge but as an integral part of the educational process in general; it also reflects the fact that Israel is one of the few countries where a foreign language is taught intensively to all levels of the secondary school population and not just to the more "academic" ones.

In my article "Teaching English to Less-Able Learners" (JOURNAL, No. 18, November 1977), I attempted to analyze the specific characteristics of these learners and made a number of general suggestions for a particular type of syllabus (e.g. stressing Receptive Skills, stressing Vocabulary rather than Grammar) and of methodology (mim-mem,using Hebrew more, extensive use of visual aids); I also categorized learners into four types: *Very Able, Able, Less-Able*, and *Unable*. In this article, I would interpose another type on the scale, between the "Less-Able" and the "Unable" — the *"Least-Able"*, on the assumption that the "Less-Able" do attain the modest level of achievement represented by the GEMER examination.

The "Least-Able" Learners

These "Least-Able" learners, then, do *not* reach GEMER level; often they are pupils in Vocational and Comprehensive schools at the MASMAM (מסלול מקצועי מעשי) or even the MASMAR (מסלול מקצועי רגיל) levels, others are found in various other educational frameworks of the Ministry of Education (Technological Division) or the Ministry of Labour, while yet others "sit" in heterogenous classes.

In other words, a criterion for membership of the category of "least-ables" is the recognition by all concerned (teachers and *pupils*) that the *existing* examination opportunities of BAGRUT and GEMER are much too difficult for them.

These "least-able" pupils should still be distinguished from the "Unables" (always bearing in mind that this article deals with *secondary* pupils only, Grade 9 upwards; under no circumstances should these delicate decisions be made at an earlier age, regarding less-least-un-able learners); but since such a lot depends on *motivation* for these least-able pupils, requiring intellectual efforts that not all of them are willing to make even for the minimal learning achievements to be expected, English should be an optional subject for them — possibly an "English Club" or "Study-Circle" (חוג), meeting for the first or last lesson of the day (or before the first and after the last) so that non-participants would not then be wandering around school corridors or requiring special attention from the Principal.

Aims of This Differential Syllabus

In outlining the "Aims" below, readers will see general terms used like "basic", "elementary" or "minimal" — all subject to interpretation; clearly, teachers will adapt the detailed suggestions to their particular classes while keeping within the overall framework assumed by these general terms. If their classes can do more than this programme outlined below, then they do not belong to this category of "least-able" pupils and should be offered the more challenging syllabus meant for "less-able" and even "able" pupils.

I would suggest the following general aims for this differential syllabus:

1. to enable these pupils to acquire a very basic receptive command of English — i.e. mainly Listening Comprehension and Reading Comprehension, at a lower level than that expected of "less-able" pupils;
2. to enable these pupils to use a very minimal communicative repertoire of English (speech and writing ... see *Skills* below);
3. to improve the self-image (תדמית עצמית) of these pupils, by enabling them to indicate to their fellows that they too are learning a prestige subject in school and are able to function minimally in the foreign language;
4. to give these pupils an experience of success in learning — i.e. English would no longer be an impossible and frustrating subject in which they are doomed to failure;
5. to broaden their cultural horizons.

In practice, these AIMS presuppose an elementary language course based entirely on skills ("behavioural objectives" — see bibliography "Waystage English") and not on systematic knowledge (language forms and their application, the more creative use of appropriate language expected of their "more advanced"

fellow-learners). This course would not be "graded" or "structured" (see *Language Activities* below): it would instead be divided into a number of separate *Topic Areas* (see below) with the lexical items being as far as possible re-entered into the different "situations" but without the "areas" being necessarily interlinked. Perhaps it is necessary to mention at this point, in view of certain fashionable fads in syllabus construction in the early 1970's, that it is only these *least-able* pupils who would be given an ungraded and nonstructured syllabus — i.e. one not based on the systematic grading of grammatical structures for use in appropriate situations; in another sense of course, this syllabus too is "graded" and "structured" insofar as it confines itself to a very controlled vocabulary and a very limited grammatical repertoire.

Language Skills — Behavioural Objectives

Speech (Oral Production): pupils would be able to say a number of stereotyped or minimally-varied phrases and sentences (including being able to ask as well as answer questions) in the framework of short memorized dialogues in the various topic-areas.

Listening Comprehension: pupils would understand short (about 100 words) conversations, anecdotes, jokes, songs, explanations etc. on everyday matters within the framework of the topic-areas and would be able to follow simple instructions.

Reading: pupils would "know their letters" and be able to read aloud and silently the following — captions to pictures, headlines in newspapers, names and addresses on envelopes, street signs, labels on packages, simple instructions for instruments and machines, titles of books and articles, public notices, simple catalogues, timetables and other lists; any reading text should not be more than two or three sentences.

Writing: pupils should be able to copy words and expressions and be able to write their own name, address etc and other particulars of "Personal identification" (see "Topic-Areas" below), to complete simple forms not demanding more than completing sentences (e.g. ordering from a catalogue), and possibly to be able to answer simple questions (very guided).

Language-Teaching Activities in the Classroom

Pronunciation: no special attention should be given to pronunciation drills etc. and teachers should rely on mimicry to ensure a minimal proficiency; the aim here should be one of intelligibility only(so that errors of the type of "sink" when "think" is intended should be attended to).

Grammar: as mentioned in "Aims" above, the syllabus for these pupils is a "nongrammatical" one, insofar as grammar *as such* is not taught and in particular

not drilled; a recognition grammar of the syllabus for Grades 5 and 6 (which these pupils have probably been "learning" and "relearning" continually for the past four years at least) is all that is expected — Present, Past and Future, with the difference between the Present Simple and Present Progressive being ignored (seen as synonymous); pupils would not be expected to "indulge" in transformation drills (change from present to past, positive to negative, declarative to interrogative etc. etc.) but would produce examples of each in the form of the mimmen ("mimicry-memorization") of model sentences (especially contextualized two-sentence dialogues) or at the most minimal variations through situation drills where all the slots are meaningful and relevant. If other structures are ever encountered (e.g. Past Progressive), they should be viewed as near-synonyms of forms occurring in the Syllabus for Grades 5 and 6. Forms which cannot be treated as such (e.g. Passive Voice) would be explained as separate lexical items; in general, grammatical forms would be treated as if they were basically semantic (i.e. lexical) units.

Vocabulary: as with the "Less-Able" pupils, the main stress (for the "Least-Able", probably the only stress) will be on the acquisition of lexical items — up to 600 words, all in the form of phrases or short sentences and NOT as isolated items on a list and all as part of contextualized topic-areas. These 600 items should as far as possible be part of the pupils' "active" (productive) vocabulary, except for the Topic-Area of "Public Notices" where probably a "passive" (recognition) vocabulary would suffice.

Methodology and Materials

Most of the didactic strategies employed by teachers for other pupil populations will naturally be equally applicable for these pupils, but perhaps the following points might be usefully stressed:

1. very frequent revision with carefully-rationed new material in order not to overstrain the memory span and so lead to frustration and resentment;
2. mimicry-memorization and minimal substitution tables; the language to be seen as a collection of separate items rather than as exponents of a rule or pattern;
3. bilingual translation as part of the presentation of new material (and as a check to ensure the items have been learnt); not only does learning a foreign language give all learners greater insight into their mother-tongue, but teachers of English to these pupils all confirm that through the foreign language they are extending the pupils' knowledge of Hebrew — all teachers are teachers of Hebrew (or should be);
4. no grammar drills — all language teaching to be in the form of vocabulary

exercises involving choices which are really "grammatical" although presented as "lexical";

5. extensive use of realia and pseudo-realia (visual aids), including posters, maps, pictures, newspapers, catalogues — authentic English but carefully chosen by the teacher and where necessary "edited" (simplified);
6. new material to be written for these pupils, including specially-written "text-books" which would include mock newspaper cuttings, mock catalogues, technical instructions, the simplest of dialogues in communicative situations, interesting anecdotes, jokes, material designed to enhance civic behaviour and educational-cultural values;
7. specially-written Skinnerian programmed worksheets for individualized learning;
8. songs;
9. specially-produced Listening Comprehension tapes or at least printed material to be used by teachers for Listening Comprehension activities.

In my opinion, the following type of material is unsuitable for these pupils: textbooks used by younger Grades, new material but on a childish level (so many texts confuse "elementary" level with "young" learners), comic strips or other types of strip cartoon, and games (many teachers would probably disagree about games, but these pupils need what they think is "serious" material for the sake of their self-image, despite the undoubted value of communicative games for language learning).

Topic-Areas

The following lists of Topic-Areas and their vocabulary have been adapted from "Waystage English" written by J. A. Van Ek, L. G. Alexander and M. A. Fitzpatrick for the Council of Europe. This level of English was intended by the authors for young adults in Europe whose language ability was weak but who needed English for the purposes mainly of youth tourism; these young adults would have learnt English from a structured-syllabus when they were at school and now required, in the opinion of the authors, a more "functional-notional" approach; furthermore, they needed the language mainly for "survival reasons" in the English-speaking country. As such, the "Waystage" programme is not immediately relevant to the pupil population discussed in this article. However, the content of this "Waystage" programme (which itself is a modification for weaker learners of the better-known "Threshold English" by Van Ek and Alexander, also for the Council of Europe) partly overlaps with the topic-areas and required vocabulary for a possible programme for "least-able" learners in Israel, without subscribing to the particular rationale of "Waystage English" and the functional-notional approach in general. The detailed programme, as adapted, is as follows:

1. *Personal Identification*
   who they are; the address and telephone number; where and when born; age and sex; nationality and religion; greetings and light conversational interaction; what they do for a living or which school they attend; school life; their family; how to obtain similar information from others.
2. *House and Home*
   describe a house or flat and the rooms in it, furniture, amenities.
3. *Free Time, Entertainment*
   what they do in their free time, hobbies, sports; obtaining such information from others.
4. *Travel*
   using means of public transport; seeking accommodation, booking rooms etc.
5. *Health and Welfare*
   state of their health, hygienic habits.
6. *Shopping*
   using shopping facilities; discussing prices; paying for things bought.
7. *Food and Drink*
   items of food and drink; visiting a restaurant.
8. *Services*
   e.g. post office, telephone, bank.
9. *Places*
   asking the way and giving directions to strangers.
10. *Language*
    e.g. ask what a word means; ask someone to speak slowly or repeat themselves; ask if a word is correct; ask how a word is pronounced or spelt; say how well they speak, understand, read, write English.
11. *Weather*
    various weather conditions.
12. *Public Notices*
    understand text of important signs (reading ability only)
13. *Work Language*
    understand instructions, catalogues, specialized lexical items in appropriate work jargons.

Key Vocabulary for the Topic-Areas

1. *Personal Identification*
   name, BE, HAVE, names of letters of the alphabet, LIVE, street, road, square, park, number, country, town, village; (names of countries); telephone, BE BORN; (names of months), NUMERALS, age, sex (man, woman, boy, girl), marital status; (names of occupations); office, shop, farm, factory,

school, hospital, job, business, TO WORK, worker, manager; members of the family; religion (name of one's own and others); Israel — description of, culture, festivals; greetings and light conversational interchange (see "General Functional Phraseology").

subsection on school language: class(room), lesson, teach-er, pupil, student, learn, subject, (names of subjects), playground, vacation, corridor, Principal, secretary, desk, blackboard, notebook, exercise, page, book, chalk, (typical classroom instructions and responses).

2. *House and Home*

LIVE, house, home, flat, apartment, room, names of different rooms, toilet, garden, floor, stairs, lift (elevator), window, door

furniture — table, chair, bed, light, sheet, blanket, pillow

services — water, gas, electricity, heating, telephone, turn on/off

amenities — bath, shower, radio, TV, garage

region — lake, hill, mountain, fields, beach, sea, river

flora and fauna — flower, tree, grass, animal, bird, insect, dog, cat, horse

3. *Free Time, Entertainment*

(leisure) — holiday(s), weekend, free

(entertainment) — radio, TV, programme, news, to watch, to listen, to sing, song, go out to, to see, cinema, film, theatre, concert, ticket, gallery, to dance, friend

(sports) — sport(s), to play, against, for, to win, to lose (names of sports), to take part in

(intellectual pursuits) — to read, to listen, to watch, to learn

(press) — newspaper, magazine, book, picture

4. *Travel*

(public transport) — to go, to come, by —, air, plane, train, bus, coach, underground, taxi, ship, on foot, bus stop, airport, ticket, return, single, to be (how much is it?), to buy, to pay, to change, platform, to leave, journey, tourist, to get on, to get off

(private transport) — car, bicycle, road, to drive, to park, motorbike, petrol (gas), oil

(hotel, camping) — hotel, camping (site), youth hostel, tent, room, to book, front, back, bill, key, (name of meals), luggage, suitcase, bag

5. *Health and Welfare*

(parts of the body) — body, head, back, arm, leg, foot, heart, tooth, hair, stomach

(ailments) — pain, ache, ill, accident, illness, to break, cold (I've caught/got a . . .), to fall, to burn, to cure, What's the matter ?

(personal comfort) — thirsty, hungry, tired, to sleep, to wake up, asleep, awake

(hygiene) — to wash, soap, towel, toothbrush, toothpaste, comb, razor, to take a shower

(medical services) — doctor, dentist, hospital, chemist (pharmacist), medicine, glasses

(emergency services) — police, policeman, police station, fire, ambulance, first aid

6. *Shopping*

(facilities) — shop, supermarket, market, to buy, to sell, to pay for, to show

(foodstuffs) — see 7

(clothes, fashion)— clothes, dress, suit, underwear, trousers (pants), jacket, shirt, blouse, show, sock, tights, coat, skirt, size, to try on, to put on, to take off, to wear

(household articles) — spoon, fork, knife, cup, bottle, glass, plate

(prices) — money units, how much does it cost (to . . .)?, price, to pay (for), change, cheap, dear

7. *Food and Drink*

(types of food and drink) — food, meal, to eat, to drink, cook, meat, fish, chicken, egg, vegetables (kinds of), fruit (kinds of), sandwich, fried, boiled, roast, salt, soup, bread, butter, margarine, cheese, icecream, coffee, tea, milk, sugar, wine, beer, juice, water

(eating out) — restaurant, menu, to have (a meal), names of meals, waiter(ress)

8. *Services*

(post) — post office, letter, stamp, postcard, envelope

(telephone) — to ring, to speak, to listen, busy line, sorry wrong number, Who's that?, Hallo, this — speaking.

(bank) — bank, money, to change, cheque, account

(police) — to steal, to lose, crime, criminal, policeman (woman)

9. *Places*

see 2, 3, 1

map, to cross, to pass, bridge, corner, traffic lights, way, road

10. *Language*

(ability) — to read, to write, to speak, to understand, language, to know, word

(understanding) — to say again, to repeat, to mean, Pardon, to understand, slowly

(correctness) — right, wrong, pronounce

11. *Weather*
weather, cold, hot, dry, wet, windy, sunny, rain, to rain, fine, sun, snow, to snow, wind, fog, ice, dark, light

12. *Public Notices*
(general locations etc.) — bus stop, cloakroom, closed, danger, down, up, entrance, exit, fire, emergency exit, full, ground floor, engaged, vacant, ladies, gentlemen, men, women, off, on, office, open, pay here, police, post office, pull, push, taxi, telephone, this way, toilet(s), way out
(station)— station, left luggage office, platform, ticket office, waiting room
(hotel) — hotel, keys, lift (elevator), reception
(on the road) — cross now, keep left, keep right, no parking, no waiting, stop, one way, turn left/right, turning
(prohibitions) — no camping, no parking, no smoking, no waiting

13. *Work Language*
jargon of each profession — about 30 words

General Functional Phraseology — applicable to all Topic-Areas

what happened? all right. I (don't) know, yes please, no thank you, thanks, can I/you...? I'd like..., Would you like...? Would you mind...?, I'm sorry. That's all right. You're welcome. Good! What a pity! What's the matter? It doesn't matter. Look out! Be careful! Let's..., Hallo. Good bye. Good morning etc. How are you? I'm fine thank you. How do you do? Excuse me.

General Notions — applicable to all Topic-Areas (terminology of "Functions" and "Notions" as in the functional-notional syllabus approach, but used here as lists of vocabulary items)
All items in singular and plural; all verbs in positive, negative, interrogative, present, past, future (but viewed as separate lexical items). Many items overlap and are found in different Notional categories and Topic-Areas.

1. *Existence*
to be, There is..., to have, yes/no, not.

2. *Space*, including direction, dimension, distance, location
here, there, away, ready, where, inside, outside, North, South, East, West. this, that, these, those, in, out, to, at, between, in front of, behind, next to, near, far from, from, through, up, down, back, before, after
to go (including "go home", "go out", "go away")

to stop, to leave, to arrive, to come, to get up, to sit down, to walk, to stay, to sit, to stand, to wait for, to turn, to bring, to send, to take, to put, left, right, straight (on), first, last

big, small, high, low, long, short, heavy, light, warm, hot, cold

3. *Time*

time (e.g. "What time is it?" or "What's the time?");
it's ... o'clock, a.m., p.m.;

at, in, on; today, yesterday, tomorrow, (this) morning, afternoon, evening, week, month, year; last, next every; tonight, last iight; names of months, days, seasons; giving the date; — ago; then, now, when?; already, yet, not yet, still, usually, always, again, now, just, never, sometimes, (not) often, at the same time, soon, a long time, a short time, late(r), early(ier), too —, for, since, till; fast, slow; to start, to stop; clock, watch.

4. *Quantity*

cardinal numbers, ordinal numbers; once, twice, — times; telephone numbers; another, other, about; QUANTIFIERS (some, any, not any, no, many, much, more, most, enough, little, a little, few, a few, almost, a lot of); half, a quarter, a third; very, too.

5. *Quality* — shape, moisture, sense, colour, age, physical condition, accessibility, material, evaluative.

round, square, (to) dry, wet; can('t) see, hear, speak, read etc; to look at, to listen to;

dark, light, loud, soft, noise, quiet, nice, hard, soft, strong, weak; names of colours;

age, old (e.g. "how old are you?"), young, new, year, adult, child;

ill, well, all right alive, dead, to break, to cut; open, closed;

(to) clean, wash, dirty; names of common materials (plastic, nylon, cotton, paper, wood, synthetics, wool);

full, empty, to fill, to give, to keep; how much? dear, cheap;

good, bad, better, best, slowly, quickly, badly, well, how?, why?

all right, right, wrong, easy, difficult (hard), (un)important, strange

6. *Mental*

see "Existence"

to know, to think (so), to hope, to mean, to speak, to write, to talk, to say, to tell, to ask, to answer, question, to understand, to thank

Grammar Inventory (introduced as lexical items rather than grammatical patterns)

BE — present, past, future, positive, negative, interrogative, full and contracted
INTERROGATIVES — what? who? how? where? why? when?
Noun Plurals
Articles, including countable and uncountable nouns
adjectives
possessive pronouns, attributive and predicative
noun genitive
agent noun
imperative (positive and negative) with "please"
present progressive and simple — positive, negative, interrogative
grammatical subject — THERE IS/ARE, IT IS (positive, negative, interrogative)
prepositions, according to Topic Area and Notion
Conjunction — AND, BUT, BECAUSE
Stative Verbs — BE, HEAR, WANT, KNOW, UNDERSTAND
past simple — positive, negative, interrogative
GOING TO — " " "
CAN — " " "
WILL future — " " "
MUST/MUST NOT, HAVE TO — positive, negative, interrogative

Some Conclusions

Teachers are invited to comment on the above suggestions and to submit alternative and/or additional proposals. The above (and similar suggestions) cannot of course be more than a rough guide for teachers: a full lexical inventory with model phrases and sentences to illustrate the various items and topic-areas will have to be drawn up at a later stage. It is also clear that an advance list like this can only be a rough guide to textbook writers, who will have to create interesting and relevant situations and so often have to modify any given vocabulary list. The important moves now are to agree on a syllabus (and so give teachers and pupils the feeling that this population too has targets which can be reached) and to encourage the writing of suitable "textbooks" (in whatever form they may appear). Perhaps some teachers (or even pupils) might be in favour of some form of final examination (on the well-known principle of "what's tested's learnt; what's not, isn't"), externally set and internally marked.

Bibliography

Van Ek, J. A., Alexander, L. G., Fitzpatrick, M. A., *Waystage English*, Pergamon Press, 1980.
Van Ek, J. A., Alexander, L. G., *Threshold Level English*, Pergamon Press, 1980.

Van Ek, J. A., *The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools*, Longman, 1977.

Articles in ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL (Israel):

Kressel, Rivka, *Teaching Slow Learners (Grade 7)*, No. 9, September 1972.
Ben-Amar, Ruth, *Teaching the Disadvantaged Child*, No. 13, April 1975.
Kronfeld, Sionah, *Television and Disadvantaged Pupils*, No. 13, April 1975.
Harari, Esther, *Interim Report of the Committee for C-D Pupils in Primary Schools*, No. 14, November 1975.
NETA Programme: A Suggested Curriculum, No. 15, April 1976.
Gotthold, Yaakov, *Testing the Knowledge of Socially-Disadvantaged Pupils in Grades 7/8*, No. 16, December 1976.
Gefen, Raphael, *Teaching English to Less-Able Learners*, No. 18, November 1977.
Gefen, Raphael, *Notes Towards a Syllabus for Teaching English to Socially-Disadvantaged Pupils*, No. 20, November 1978.
Levenston, Helen, *Teaching English to Socially-Disadvantaged Pupils*, No. 21, May 1979.
Levenston, Helen, *Towards an English Syllabus for Socially-Disadvantaged Pupils*, No. 22, December 1979.
Elammy, Mella, *Teaching Literature to Socially-Disadvantaged Learners*, No. 22, December 1979.
Tobin, Michael, *On Teaching in Schools for Socially-Disadvantaged Pupils*, No. 24, December 1980.
Levenston, Helen, *Television and Rehabilitative Teaching*, No. 25, July 1981.
Einhorn Edna and Shoshani Gavriella, *Can Thinking Habits Be Improved Through The Teaching of English?* No. 26, January 1982.
Suggested Syllabus for GEMER-MASMAR Students (Two-Points), No. 20, November 1978.
Levenston, Helen, *Teaching English to the "Disadvantaged" — What Do Teachers Think?*, No. 28, June 1983.

7. DRAMA IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING FROM A PSYCHOLINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE (PART II)

by *Susan L. Stern*

Part I of this article appeared in the JOURNAL, No. 27.
(reprinted from *Language Learning*, Vol. 30, No. 1)

Psychodrama

Psychodrama is a general term describing a group action technique in which individuals act out roles involving social or psychological problems. It typically begins with a warm-up period and discussion in which a theme (role, situation, problem) is agreed upon. The group members then take roles and improvise a drama, based upon the selected theme; afterwards, they react to and analyze the performance.

Psychological Factors

Psychodrama techniques reinforce *empathy* by developing interpersonal skills and sensitivity to others. They also help the individual become more flexible, i.e., developing a sense of mastery in many different role situations. This suggests that through roleplay, L2 learners can experience many kinds of situations in which they will use the language; and as they develop a sense of mastery in them, should be able to apply the language more easily to new ones.

The safety of role-play is frequently expressed in psychodramatic literature. Corsini (1966) explained that in real life, patients may not attempt new ways of doing things; for if they fail, the results can be harmful. In therapeutic role-play, however, the very fact that they have the courage to demonstrate their functioning, no matter how inadequately, is a success. Consequently, their *sensitivity to rejection* is lowered and they are not embarrassed by a poor performance. If the same holds true for L2 learners, they too should be less inhibited during role-play than in real life, and therefore function better in the second language than they thought they could. This, in turn, should raise their *self-esteem*.

Analyses of people who have been through intensive psychodramas suggest a number of recurrent patterns which might collectively be described as "the spontaneity state" (Mann 1970), or *spontaneity*. Mann explains that persons in this state completely forget the audience or cease to worry about the reactions, and the usual gap between thought and expression ceases to exist; expression becomes an integrated whole. Furthermore, "in varying degrees the person in such a state acts as though inspired. He draws upon resources which neither he nor his friends may have thought he had at his disposal." (Mann 1970:7–8). If this state can be induced in L2 learners via drama, then the gap between thought and expression which ceases to exist in the native language might cease to exist in the second language as well. To the degree that L2 learners succeed in communicating, it helps them adjust to becoming speakers of the second language and tends to become part of their linguistic repertoire.

Dramatics in Speech Therapy

Psychodrama and role-playing, when adapted to a particular setting, can be remarkably effective for children with relatively poor cognitive and verbal skills. Creative dramatics is used as psychotherapy, as diagnostic observation, and as auditory training. Children with speech handicaps benefit from the group interaction central to creative dramatics.

The Hypothesis

This brief investigation into the use of drama in language education, psychology, and speech therapy reveals that despite their differing aims, each employs drama

because it facilitates communication. It appears to be the common assumption that drama can develop and/or elicit communicative competence in the individual.

The application of the assumption to L2 learning is the basis for the hypothesis: Drama facilitates communication in L2 learners by encouraging the following psychological factors to operate: heightened self-esteem, motivation, and spontaneity; increased capacity for empathy; lowered sensitivity to rejection.

An Exploratory Study of the Psychological Basis for Using Drama

The following is a brief summary of the conclusions of student and teacher questionnaires, designed to informally explore the above hypothesis.

The student questionnaire was designed to elicit the students' subjective responses to the psychological aspects of drama being investigated. The students felt that dramatic activities had helped them gain self-confidence in speaking English and become less embarrassed when speaking in front of a group. Along with improving intonation and expression (the instructors' primary objective for using drama), these two areas were perceived by the students as being the greatest benefits of participating in drama. They felt that drama had helped them develop spontaneity in English. The students felt positive about their ability to express themselves in English during the improvisations, and even more positive after seeing themselves on videotape. They had enjoyed participating in these activities and were motivated to participate in more. No comments can be made about a causal relationship between drama and empathy, but it can at least be said that the students did not appear to have any problems understanding, identifying with, or stepping into the roles of the characters.

The teacher questionnaire asked the instructors to comment on what their specific objectives had been for using dramatic activities, why they had chosen drama to meet these objectives, and which, if any, of these objectives had been met. According to their responses, drama created a safe classroom environment and relaxed their students, helping to lessen their nervousness about speaking in front of a group. They found drama to be a welcome relief from the normal classroom activity, and highly motivating in that not only the more outgoing students participated, but also (and surprisingly very willingly) the normally passive ones. Drama also helped their students to lose their normal inhibitions, and assume personalities very much in contrast to their own.

The author's own experience using drama strongly supports the observations of these students and teachers. The students seem to undergo a transformation when they "step out" of the classroom into an imaginary setting and situation, especially the shy students who normally speak only when called upon — and then in a quiet and hesitant voice. They become more extroverted, initiating as

well as responding to dialogue. Role-play seems to stimulate them to activate their passive competence of the language. The more verbal and extroverted students are also transformed. Their speech becomes more fluent, and their intonation and inflection more native-like.

8. COMPUTER-AIDED INSTRUCTION OF ENGLISH — ISRAELI PROJECTS

1. THE USES OF COMPUTER-ASSISTED INSTRUCTION: AN OVERVIEW

by *Dr. Roberta Stock*, Tel Aviv University

1.0 Introduction

The use of computers in education has increased phenomenally during the past few years, mostly due to technological advances which have made available inexpensive microcomputers.[1] This increase has paralleled or might even have been caused by the popularity of "games-type" home computers — those attached to television sets or those purchased as "stand-alones". However, the awareness of the potential of computers as teaching-machines is certainly not new: the University of Illinois began working on its PLATO system more than 15 years ago. During the past decade there have been different studies made on the efficacy of computer-assisted instruction (CAI), all raising the question as to whether students learn more with CAI (or the same), in the same amount of time (or in less). In general, the results have been extremely positive, showing that students at the very least learn the same material as the control group does in a shorter period of time.

Over 10 years, thousands of hours of courseware have been developed by teachers as well as by professional materials developers and today, many universities offer courses which use the computer to present part of the course material. Foreign language programs on PLATO (now Control Data PLATO) were being used at the University of Illinois from the early 70's; the first languages taught were Latin, French and Russian. In 1973, the first ESL lessons were developed at the University of Illinois for foreign students required to take a remedial grammar course. Later, lessons were developed for low-level ESL students studying at the Intensive English Institute.

---

1. The term microcomputer is usually used to refer to stand-alone units which do not have to be connected to a central computer. They generally include a screen, a keyboard and a disk driver into which you put a disk containing the lesson.

From the experience with these and other CAI lessons, I have developed a series of guidelines which can be used when making decisions about this medium in general and about its use in the EFL curriculum in particular. Below I will present, in outline form, some of these suggestions, along with a general discussion of the field and those issues concerning CAI which may need to be clarified. First, however, I will briefly present some facts about computers and CAI systems for those who may not be familiar with this technology.

1.1 What is a computer ?

It is important to remember that a computer is a stupid machine. Like a puppet, it cannot do anything unless you give it explicit instructions for ALL cases and ALL situations. If something goes wrong, it is rarely if ever the computer's fault — it is the fault of the programmer who did not give the computer explicit-enough instructions.

What does a computer do? In simplisitic terms, it simply manipulates data and stores it. The data that we supply is called the input. We tell the computer how to analyze the data and then, when the analysis is through, we get an output. The usual output of most computers is a printout. On some computer systems (CAI in particular), the output is generally the display on the screen.

The instructions you give the computer are written in computer language (which then gets converted into machine language). The language which one uses depends on the computer — different computers use different languages. There are languages which are good for CAI and there are languages which are made specifically for business purposes, or for collecting a great deal of data.

Most of the languages developed for CAI are quite easy and have been developed specifically for non-computer people.

1.2 What is a CAI system ?

In a CAI computer system, the added element is interaction between the student and the output. The student sits in front of a television-like screen and a keyboard. She is presented with a request for interaction — usually in the form of a question that she is to answer.The student enters the answer by either typing something or touching a touch-sensitive screen. The student's answer is then judged. A judgment of "correct" occurs when the student's answer exactly matches the answer which the lesson developers expected and which was entered as input by the programmer. A judgment of "incorrect" occurs when no match is made. When the student has entered a correct answer, she is given a correct-answer message on the screen ("good", "you are terrific", etc.) and she then moves on to the next display.

When the student's answer is incorrect, she must re-do the question (that is, enter the correct answer) before moving to the next display. Depending on the program, the student might be given clues as to the correct answer, or routed to a help sequence, or jumped out to another lesson.

2.0 The people involved: the teacher and the student

Crucial to the success of a new medium is the active participation of the people using it. Below I would like to consider in brief some of the expected reactions to the medium by the concerned parties: the teacher and the student.

2.1 CAI and the teacher

The question asked repeatedly by teachers is whether the widespread use of computers will make them "redundant". Such a question, naive though it may seem to educators already using sophisticated technology, must be answered seriously since a teacher's negative attitude can sabotage any project which necessarily depends on the cooperation of the teaching staff for its success.

In order to answer this question honestly, we must look at what a teacher can do that a computer cannot do and vice versa.

The computer is simply a machine whose operations are predictable. It can, more efficiently and quickly than humans, collect, sort, rearrange and store data. Being a machine, it can be "bought", set up in some corner and used when convenient, by someone interested in having a one-on-one interaction with certain material being judged and corrected on the spot.

In the foreign language classroom, the teacher spends part of her time on work that would be suitable for CAI — drill and practice, classroom bookkeeping, etc. Most of the teacher's time, however, is spent on interacting with students in a way that is not predictable; in a way that is decided on the spot by the specific needs of the group. This type of spontaneous interaction cannot, of course, be done by a computer. Clearly, too, there are aspects of foreign language learning that are inappropriate or impossible for CAI — e.g. writing, speaking, listening comprehension, group work, hypothesis formation, etc.

By accepting the fact that a computer can complement our teaching, we gain a technology that allows us to ferret out student weaknesses and provide remediation, to deal with individual differences as well as to eliminate some of the time-consuming bookkeeping inherent in classroom teaching.

2.2 CAI and the student

It is not an exaggeration to claim that students take to this medium enthusiastically, and, predictably, there is an initial increase in interest in the subject matter.

More crucial, however, is the fact that these positive attitudes continue even after the fervor for something new and different fades into familiarity.

Besides motivational advantages, there are other concrete, student-related reasons for using CAI. First, the lessons, by their very nature, are well-organized, with clearly stated objectives and students respond well to knowing exactly what is expected of them.

Also, students learn a great deal from the feedback given to both correct and incorrect answers. They immediately know if their hypotheses are correct and if incorrect, they can adjust them accordingly. There is no time lapse between answering a question and receiving an evaluation — as soon as the question is answered, it is judged.

Furthermore, students can receive instruction tailored to their individual needs; instruction determined by their specific performance. This individualization is implemented technically by branching within the curriculum and different students will have different "maps". Such a tailor-made course allows the students to quickly skip over topics they are already proficient in and work in depth where needed.

Finally, the student feels very involved in the educational process. In many programs, students choose the material to be covered, keeping in mind the final objectives. In this one-on-one situation, the student is constantly interacting with the material and not sitting passively in the classroom with the chance of answering one question, if she is lucky, during the entire class period.

Student reactions to CAI are generally consistent and tend to resemble those collected in 1973 from a group of foreign students studying English as a foreign language at the University of Illinois:

"... I can go at my own speed."
"... the computer tells me what I did wrong right away."
"... I have to know the answer exactly; I cannot guess."
"... I am not afraid of making a fool of myself in front of my friends."

3.0 CAI as a methodology

The decision to use CAI should not simply be made on the basis of availability of computers in the school; rather, for CAI to be effective, its adoption should be the result of a conscious decision to individualize instruction as much as possible. Below I will discuss some of the methodologival implications of the use of CAI in general.

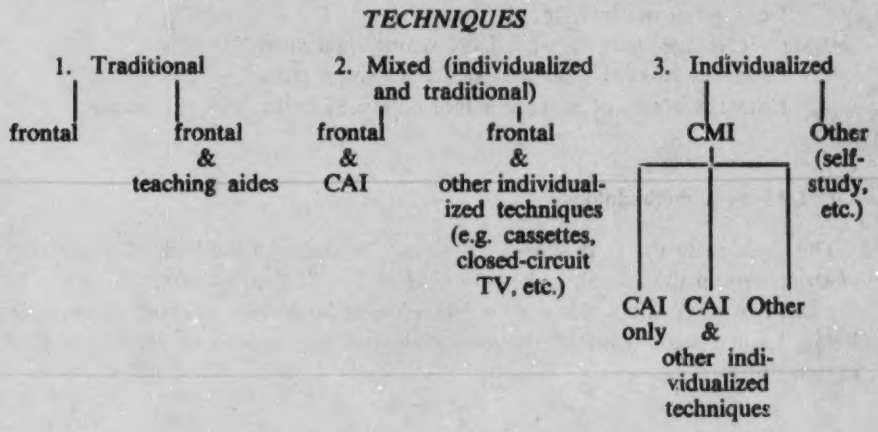
3.1 CAI as reflecting a belief in individualized instruction

CAI is a technology that reflects a belief in individualized instruction: every child has the right to achieve her maximum level of knowledge; every child learns in a different way and at a different speed. Discarded is the notion that there is such a thing as the average student at whom a lesson can be aimed.

Ideally, it should be possible to determine the input knowledge of a pupil (what she knows when she enters the course of study) and the output desired (what she should know when she finishes the course) with the process of going from input to output determined by individual needs, strategies, speed, etc.

Within the traditional framework of the classrooom, the process described above is basically impossible, even when using group work, study corners, contract teaching, etc. The computer, by its very nature, can implement individualization, at least partially.

It should be noted that even when CAI programs are used in the schools, the entire methodology is not automatically individualized since this would involve one-to-one tutorials between the student and the computer/teacher/tutor from the beginning of the course to the end. Rather, in most schools CAI is used in combination with traditional teaching techniques and it thus adds an element of individualization. In industry, on the other hand, many training courses become totally individualized and the trainee learns the material/skill, from beginning to end, via courses tailor-made for her needs and abilities. The trainee's course of study is often *managed* by the computer (i.e. the computer directs her to different learning tasks which may not necessarily involve using CAI) and this is called computer-managed instruction (CMI). The diagram below should help clarify the differences between traditional teaching techniques and individualized instruction.



3.2 **Methodological implications of CAI**

The decision to use CAI has serious methodological implications. It generally involves a conscious decision to present material in a certain manner, to organize it according to certain guidelines, and to establish certain expectations about student interaction, achievement and learning styles. It demands from the teacher/material developer the ability and willingness to think about more than just the material being presented — unlike the classroom situation where the teacher can determine how to use a text and what sort of interaction is expected from the student, CAI requires that these procedures be determined in advance.

The use of CAI forces us to carefully define our goals and objectives, to carefully plan our lessons in units of courses and not just a week or a month in advance. This need to plan ahead has a positive effect on the quality of the material produced and CAI lessons are, as a rule, quite successful.

Note, too, that the use of CAI forces us to evaluate not only our students' achievements but also the materials and the methodology we are using. Fortunately, it is quite easy to make corrections to our CAI lessons (unlike to textbooks) and we can often change the material with a limited effort.

The practical implementation of CAI may initially be time-consuming because of scheduling problems and the limited number of terminals available in the school. When the school has only a few terminals, pupils have to work on the computer before or after regular school hours. When there are enough terminals for an entire class, then the time for computer work can be scheduled during the school day.[2] All individualized activities require, at least at first, careful scheduling and administration. Still, most believe that the effort is worth making.

4.0 **The CAI lesson**

Below is a brief survey of the different types of CAI lessons and question-formats. The type of lesson or question being used often reflects a difference in philosophy or approach, with some lessons doing no more than providing drill and others presenting an entire course of study.

4.1 **Lesson types**

There are seven general types of CAI lessons:

a. drill and practice;

b. tutorial;

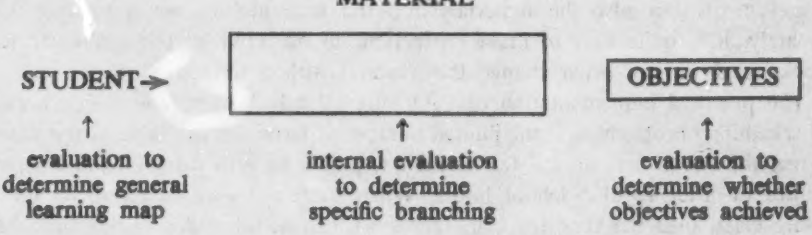
---

2. It is always important to have time available for those pupils who wish to do more than the required minimum. They should be allowed adequate opportunity to re-do or review previously completed lessons.

c. drill and practice with remediation and practice;
d. testing;
e. simulation-style;
f. games;
g. utilities (data collection, routing, etc.).

With lesson type a, the assumption is that all new material was presented in the classroom and that the computer's function is the drilling of this familiar material. No active teaching is being done on the computer, although, on occasion, the feedback messages may contain hints.

With lesson type b, assumptions are rarely made about the student's level or her background and knowledge. In this purely individualized approach, the student is tested when beginning the course, prescribed an individualized learning map, and then tested at the end of the course to see whether she has achieved the course objectives.



Lesson type c assumes that new material is presented in the classroom, but that classes are not homogeneous and different students may have different areas of weaknesses. Thus, the lessons provide practice for everyone in the new material while also unearthing specific problem areas and providing remediation in the form of tutorials and practice. Hence, there will be material which all the students will cover and material used by different students according to their different levels. Most CAI language courses are of form a or c; the most successful ones are type c because they provide homework-type practice while allowing for individual differences.

Type d, testing lessons, are different than type a, b and c in that these lessons collect data on every item, allow students only one chance at each question, do not usually provide teaching-type feedback, and are often made up of randomly selected items.

Simulation-style lessons (type e) are used to approximate reality. Used for practicing some actual behavior pattern, they involve problem solving and interaction with a graphic display. Ideal for situations which would usually involve expensive equipment or a significant time lapse (fixing a plane, doing a fruit-fly experiment), they are usually not suitable for foreign language lessons.

Game lessons (type f) are, without a doubt, the most fun. These lessons are probably the main reason for the great popularity of microcomputers. There are many successful games with educational value, especially for teaching mathematics, but there are only very few really good language games (e.g. hangman, word-war, etc.).A word of caution: legitimate gaming situations, though motivational, may not be educational in that they do not provide real practice or present any generalization or are too time-consuming. Usually game-type lessons are more effective. That is, games that are not truly based on random selection of data although the student may think they are. For example, one can use a slot-machine game where different vocabulary items appear in the windows and the pupil must say which are the same and which are different. Making the selection of the items purely random would probably not insure proper practice, but one can "fix" the game without the student ever knowing the difference by pre-determining which items will appear and in which order.

4.2 Question types

The type of questions possible (that is, the type of answers that a computer can judge) depends a great deal on the capabilities of the individual computer. However, all micros are limited in their ability to judge long essay-type answers which cannot be predicted ahead of time (e.g. answer to "Where do you live?", "What did you do yesterday?"). Even non-predictable short answers cannot be handled adequately. In order to prepare the reactions to student answers, you must be able to list all the possible correct answers and ideally the expected incorrect ones as well.

All computers can handle multiple-choice questions where the student types/touches the letter/number corresponding to the correct answer. This is, indeed, the most common sort of question, requiring very little sophistication either from the programmer or the computer. There are, however, some computers that can handle more sophisticated student input. CDC PLATO, for example, allows for student answers of various lengths, the checking of spelling, word order and capitalization and a large variety of possible correct answers.

Even when limited to objective-type questions (with a small number of possible correct answers), there are different question possibilities:

a. multiple choice with student typing/touching letter/number of correct answer;
b. fill-in questions with choices given and students typing in the one-word choice;
c. matching style (matching an item from one column with an item from the other column);
d. true/false;

e. reference type questions (which line did the answer occur on?);
f. re-ordering of items into the correct order.

Besides the different types of questions, there are different types of feedback. The possibilities here also depend on the computer's capabilities but all of them can present students with some sort of feedback — either one word or phrases and sentences. It is important to give feedback not only for positive answers, but also for negative ones. This feedback can be used for the teaching or reinforcement of certain points. (For example, "In English, you add -s to the third person singular".)

5.0 Guidelines for evaluating computers and existing programs

Few of us are fortunate enough, at least initially, to be given the opportunity to select the computer we will be using. Most likely, the computers already exist in the school and we can obtain some published courseware. The decision now to be made is whether, given the available hardware and courseware, it is worth the time and effort needed to include CAI in the curriculum. Below is a list of my minimal requirements; these are the guidelines I use when evaluating both computers and courseware.

5.1 Hardware requirements

a. The display should be non-irritating with good resolution. The letters should be easy to read and clearly defined with no fading or "pulsation" (dark, light, dark, etc.).
b. The terminal should be sturdy and not easily breakable.
c. Good service should be available. In many cases, the hardware just sits in schools because of poor servicing or no money in the budget to provide for repairs.
d. There should be sophisticated graphics capabilities and the possibility of animation.
e. It is very effective if the screen is touch sensitive. (The student can touch the right answer rather than type it.)
f. Both Hebrew and English should be able to appear on the same display. Absolutely crucial is the availability of English upper and lower cases.
g. Nice but not obligatory is a page-printer which could present the teacher with a hardcopy (written) print out of student statistics.

5.2 Programming requirements

a. Non-professional programmers should be able to program easily.
b. It should be easy to make corrections.
c. Consultants should be available if help is needed.

5.3 Educational requirements

a. The program should allow for:

1. sophisticated feedback;
2. branching on the basis of student data;
3. collecting statistics;
4. restarts (so that students can continue where they left off and not have to start every lesson at the beginning if they want to leave in the middle);
5. a variety of answers;
6. different type faces, type sizes;

b. There should be enough published courseware available.

5.4 Requirements of published lessons (courseware)

a. All lessons should enable students to receive feedback on their answers.
b. There should be sufficient, adequate and educationally significant feedback messages.
c. Students should be given an assessment of their progress (score).
d. The objectives of the lesson should be clear to both the teacher and the student.
e. The lessons should be interactive and not present material that could be presented more easily and more cheaply on paper (not a page-turner).
f. Cuteness and gimmicks should not be present at the expense of educational validity.

6.0 Conclusions

Computers are the present and the future. They have become an essential part of our lives. There is no reason, therefore, to assume that they will not make an impact on education. Having had the opportunity to watch 75 students at 75 different terminals working on 75 different lessons, it is clear to me that computers can be used in education as a tool that will help the teacher achieve her goals in the best possible way. Armed with knowledge about this technology, we must be in the position to make clear and rational decisions about where to use the computer (and not, any more, whether to use it).

2. COMPUTER-ASSISTED TEACHING PROJECT — S.M.L.

by *Hadas Achituv*, Kiriat Shmona

The teaching process joins three inter-related factors: teacher, pupil, and subject-matter. The majority of computer programs stress the relation between pupil and subject-matter oniy, whereas S.M.L. stresses also the relation between teachers and subject-matter. It is the belief of S.M.L. that the teacher has a central role to play in the process of computer-assisted teaching. Without his/her involvement there is a decrease in the benefit accruing from the introduction of advanced technologies into education. This assumption is supported by research conducted in the U.S.A. (the PLATO experiment conducted by Murphy in 1977, and the TICCIT by Alderman in 1978).

The aims of the S.M.L. project are:

a) the improvement of the pupil's achievements;

b) increase in the children's motivation in tackling learning tasks;

c) the rejuvenation of the teacher's didactic approach by the introduction of new technologies;

d) the creation of awareness of "Computer Literacy".

The S.M.L. characteristics are:

a) modularity — which enables the addition of units without changing the structure;

b) flexibility — ease of building and changing courseware;

c) teacher involvement;

d) the simplicity of use and of building subject matter;

e) the development team of S.M.L. is in constant touch with teachers and pupils "in the field", receives their reactions and revises its programs accordingly;

f) mapping — the computer gives the teacher a printed layout of students' achievements as a basis to plan individual and/or class treatment.

Teacher Involvement

This is the most important characteristic. The S.M.L. project enables the teacher to become actively involved at:

1) the level of "user". The teacher activates the program himself and does not need the aid of experts. This is the lowest level which constitutes the preparation towards a higher level of involvement.

2) the level of "instructor". In addition to the pre-arranged run of the pupil's session with the computer determined by the team which developed the program, the teacher himself is able to decide a certain series of sessions and on the type of exercise the pupil should get. In addition the teacher is able to analyse the rate of progress of each and every pupil.

3) the level of "author". It enables the teacher to feed programs into the computer (with the help of fifteen pre-edited programs) without being a trained programmer. This is the highest level of involvement.

The S.M.L. project has been used in Kiryat Shmona for the last four years (in mathematics). The program was recognized as a country-wide one in 1982/83 and is being implemented in about 25 schools throughout the country. At present the program includes the following subjects:

a) Mathematics — 22 series of practice for grades 3—8.

b) English (details as follows).

c) Hebrew language and comprehension.

d) Enrichment and development of thought.

The following programs are being developed at present:

a) Arithmetic and Geometry;

b) Hebrew language and text comprehension;

c) Jewish Studies (Talmud, Mishna);

d) English (details as follows).

Every school joining the program is allocated a program of advice and instruction to enable the local team to use the program efficiently and correctly.

Based on teachers' and pupils' reactions collected by the development team, the following picture emerges:

a) There is an improvement in text comprehension — pupils learn to read instructions and follow them (in math as well). In English this is one of the few opportunities for the pupil to read "natural" silent reading, because in the ordinary classroom situation he usually hears the others read.

b) Reports from a number of places indicate substantial progress in pupils' achievements.

c) Teachers' involvement in the program intensified during the implementation of the program in school. In the first year of use, only a small part of the staff took part in it. As time went by, a greater number of teachers participated and the quality of teaching improved.

d) Teachers taking part in the development of courseware have improved their own teaching methods.

e) Pupils understand more correctly the significance of the uses of the computer — as a machine programmed by man (Computer Literacy).

f) Improvement in pupils' behaviour — pupils who had "discipline problems" improved remarkably in this respect, possibly because the computer enabled them to function on their personal level and speed and accorded them positive feedbacks.

THE ENGLISH UNIT

Aims:

a) Practice and Progress at a personal rate.

b) Enrichment.

c) Acquisition (this on a modest scale, indirectly).

A program for the 6th grade exists at present. The development team assumes the program to be suitable for the average pupil (group B). The team used various texts taken from the "Here We Are" textbook. (In some cases, certain adaptations were made to cover loss of illustrations, without which certain parts become meaningless).

Every story is presented in the following manner:

a) A text appears in its entirety on the screen. The pupil reads it at his own pace and then is required to perform a categorization relevant to the subject in hand. (For example: in the passage "Lunch in the Park" the pupil is required to categorize fruit and colours.) The pupil can use a computerized dictionary which appears on the screen at the touch of a certain button.

b) Knowledge of vocabulary is tested by two kinds of questionnaires (closed and/or open).

1. The closed questionnaire is a multiple choice questionnaire.
   For example: It's long and it's yellow, it's .....
   1. a banana
   2. an apple
   3. a pear

   The pupil is required to press button "1" as being the right answer in this case. If wrong, the right answer will appear on the screen.
2. The open questionnaire has two levels:
   Level 1 —
   It's long and it's yellow, it's .....
   a banana — a pear — an apple
   The pupil is required to type the right answer therefore practising correct spelling.
   Level 2 — The same question appears without distractors therefore the pupil has to remember the correct spelling.
   In both cases any kind of mistake is significant.

c) Comprehension is tested by closed and/or open questionnaires.

d) Grammatical structures are tested as in section c and with the aid of additional tools as follows:

1. *Word categorization.* The pupil's ability to categorize words is tested. In this case the pupil categorizes a list of items into groups in order to emphasize the differences between them.

For example:

Fruit	*Colours*	red —
		banana
		apple
		green

The line points to the item which has to be dealt with. The pupil presses the number of the correct group. If right, the word will "jump" into the correct column.

2. *Scramble.* The purpose of this tool is to teach the correct sentence structure. A scrambled sentence is presented on the screen.
For example:

1) APPLE	2) AN	3) .	4) GREEN	5) IS

The pupil is required to type the correct word order, in this case: 2, 1, 5, 4, 3. As a result the words appear on the screen in the correct order as follows:

AN APPLE IS GREEN.

This tool enables the teacher to use graded difficulty levels, for example when the pupil is required to form a question:

1) A	2) IS	3) YELLOW	4) ?	5) BANANA

In this case the pupil has to recognize the sentence as being a question and type the word order accordingly (2, 1, 5, 3, 4).

3. *Matching.* The purpose of this tool is to emphasize the connection between a pair of words or sentences. (The connection can be based on either opposition or analogies etc.).
4. *Colouring.* The purpose of this tool is to emphasize a certain part of a sentence or a word. For example: recognizing the vowels. In this case the pupil gets on the first screen the rule: The vowels are: a, e, i, o, u and on a second screen he is required to colour the letters accordingly.

a) Enrichment and "fun".
- Memory game.
- Crossword puzzle.

Each story presented does not necessarily include all the above factors.

Development Programs

1) A program for the advanced 6th grade pupils (group A) is being developed. This program will include the same factors as the previous one. In this program

the texts used will be new (unknown to the pupil). However they will use similar vocabulary and grammatical structures.The assumption underlying this program is that the texts learned in class do not constitute sufficient incentive for the above-average pupil. Thus we present him with new and challenging texts.

2) A program for the below average 6th grade pupils (group C) is being developed. This program is based on very simple and short texts. It is adapted to the limited powers of concentration and ability characteristic of this group.

3) Programs for the 7th and 8th grades will be developed on three levels according to the above structure.

4) A grammatical unit is being developed. The needs for dealing with such a unit using a computer are as follows:

a) knowledge of grammatical structures is essential for correct language;
b) grammar is difficult to teach (as well as to acquire);
c) pupils tend to forget grammatical structures learned in the past and need constant review;
d) the motivation to study grammar will hopefully increase by using computers;
e) the student gets immediate feedback to every answer. If wrong, the correct answer will be given immediately, therefore reinforcing the correct grammatical structure and not allowing the reinforcement of the incorrect form (what usually happens in worksheets);
f) the teacher receives a printout of each pupil's progress, as well as that of the class as a whole. The teacher can treat accordingly any problem arising.

It is important to point out that within the grammatical unit it is essential to utilize the vocabulary studies in class, to make the grammatical structures contextual and meaningful.

The grammatical unit is to be based on different grammatical items and will include all the grammatical subjects that should be mastered. In each session the pupil will drill subject matter learned in the past as well as material studied at present. As for subject-matter learned in the past — with a high percentage of correct answers the computer will automaticaly close this particular chapter (unless the teacher instructs it not to do so). On the other hand, the computer will assign the pupil additional exercises. When a subject is introduced in class, the teacher can update the pupil's particulars and the computer will then drill the pupil accordingly. It will be possible for the teacher to plan the pupil's session with the computer to include subjects learned in the past if found necessary.

For each chapter in the grammatical unit there will be exercises on different levels of difficulty regarding vocabulary as well as complexity to enable the teacher to fit the activity to a certain grade (6th, 7th, or 8th) and level.

The S.M.L. project is being developed by a team of teachers in Kiryat-Shmona headed by Mr. Chaim Schlezinger and is supported and encouraged by the Computer Committee of the Ministry of Education, the Welfare and Rehabilitation

of Neighbourhoods Committee (מרכז הרחובות תרשה לשיקום שכונות) and the Municipality of Kiryat Shmona.

Grateful acknowledgment must also be made to the team of English teachers in Kiryat Shmona, who devote time, effort and ability, mostly on a voluntary basis, to the development of this project.

3. GRADE 7 COMPUTER PROGRAMS FOR TIRAT HACARMEL

by *A. S. I. Acker*, Haifa

"Several years ago one of America's largest corporations undertook a study to find out what its best programmers had studied in college. ... English and music were the most common majors among the top computerists." (*Compute!* Jan. 1983.

In the summer of 1982 the Education Department of Tirat Hacarmel was informed that they would be receiving about thirty micro-computers for use in their schools. A number of teams were formed to help prepare for the introduction of the computer into their school system. One such team was made up of the two senior English teachers from the two High Schools and a programmer who had taught English for many years.

The team first met in April 1982 (and has met once a week since then) with an open directive to prepare material that would be useful in teaching English and that would exploit the potentials of the computer.

The programs were to be written for the Commodore 16k machine. The '16k' is a measure of their internal memory, and therefore a limit on how long and how complex a program can be run on such a machine. In the event no program to date has used much more than half this amount. The screen has forty columns and twenty-five rows. The characters (letters, numbers, graphic symbols) are green on a black background, or, reversed, black characters on a green background. The program language is BASIC, a language developed in the '60's and the one most commonly used on micro-computers.

Without even having regard to the modesty of the resources available, it was decided at the very first meeting that the computer, in this project, would be confined to its role as a teaching aid. No attempt would be made to use it for any primary teaching. The programs were to be of the kind that would drill, review and revise material already taught in the classroom. It was hoped that the programs would do whatever a good written exercise does, and do it more effectively. The computer responds immediately and can immediately reinforce the correct response. The computer presents a more attractive face to the student

than does a book or a stencil, if only because there is movement and change on the screen.

A guess was made that the time a student would spend at a computer might be half a lesson each week, i.e. about ten or fifteen percent of his time in the English class. The number of computers in the school was likely to be less than the number of students who could usefully use them. After all, English was only one of the subjects computers were to be used for. And, as has been noted, most of the students' time is needed in the class where the primary learning is taking place.

It was also decided that two students at a time would sit at each computer. Obviously this doubles the number of students who can use the computer at any one time. But there is a more important reason. Some experience has shown that many students are more comfortable working together: one runs the program and one kibitzes. It is assumed that the support, advice, comments and criticism one student gets from the other adds to the learning progress. It was planned, therefore, to run the same program (with minor changes) twice during the same lesson, once for each student.

Finally it was decided to write programs for the class for one year. The 7th grade was the class chosen as the most convenient class to start with and the programs, in the main, were designed to accompany the textbook "*Gabby and Debby*", alternative edition. Using an approved textbook saved much work: vocabulary and grammatical structures were taken in the order they appeared in the book.

From the students' point of view the programs are of two kinds, formal-academic and games. *Riser Fill In* is a simple example of the first kind of program. Underneath the heading at the top of the screen appears a sentence with a word or phrase missing. The student is asked to choose one out of the five possible answers shown to him in a column down the left of the screen. He types in the number that is beside the word of his choice and then presses the return key on the computer. If he has chosen incorrectly the number of that word is crossed out and a message is flashed telling him to try again. Until he gets the correct answer he cannot move on to the next question, and for each mistake a point is deducted from the score for that time. When he gets the correct answer the word or phrase is lifted up the screen by "flying hearts" and fitted into its place in the sentence. At the end of the round, typically ten to fifteen questions, the final score, as the percentage correct, is displayed along the bottom line.

In any one round only four out of five of the questions stored in the program are displayed. This assures that in a second (and any subsequent) round some new questions as well as many of the old ones will come up for answering. Whatever sentences are shown are shown in random order. The possible answers are also scrambled differently each time. About one time out of five the correct

answer is not shown and then the correct response is to enter the number 5 which is beside the tag NONE OF THE ABOVE.

It is not intended to keep a record of the score for every student and for every program, and no provision has been made through the computer for this. If the program is on the right level for the class, then the first time round (or for the first student) the score should be sixty to eighty percent correct and the second time round higher than eighty percent. Too low a score the first time suggests that the program is too difficult: too high a score, perhaps, that there is not enough to learn. A good spread between the first and second scores points to the learning that has taken place.

The second kind of program (still from the students' point of view) is a game. "Submarine" is an example of this. In this program the computer hides a 'submarine' under the screen. The object of the game is to discover the submarine and destroy it. To do this the player enters the coordinates of the place where he thinks the submarine is to be found, and presses "return". A bug moves across the screen and bombs this spot. If the player misses, he is given clues, such as, YOU ARE BEHIND THE SUB AND JUST UNDER IT. After a certain number of tries, a number between eight and twelve, determined at random, and if the player has not destroyed the submarine, the submarine rises to the surface and destroys the bug.

In order to play the game the student must read and make use of the clues presented to him in English. The clues are prepositions of place. Also, he must follow instructions, i.e. PRESS C TO CONTINUE. In other words, if he plays the game at all he is using English not as a mechanical exercise but as a tool to achieve his own ends. No score is given at the end of the game and the only record worth keeping is the bare fact that the student played the game.

From the point of view of the team writing the programs they are also of two kinds: Master Programs and Class Programs. A Master Program is one like Riser Fill In. By changing only the stored questions and answers, a fairly simple process, in the Master Program to the ones appropriate to the lesson being taught, a Class Program is created. Thus for the 7th grade there will be about eight programs with the same format, movement and scoring system as Riser Fill In, but each will have a different set of questions, each suitable to the level of study.

At the moment there are ten Master Programs, some with two or three variations. Three programs (and their variations) are intended for vocabulary review. Their format is similar to that already described for Riser Fill In.

There are three spelling programs. In one, a bastard son of "Space Invaders", a word with a missing letter moves across the screen from left to right. The student must identify the missing letter and fire it into the word at the right moment. A second program for spelling displays a word briefly and then distributes the letters of the word at random round the screen. The student must

reassemble the word, putting the letters back in the correct order. A third program is to review the rules for adding ING at the end of a word.

There are three word-order programs. Here it is the words which are presented to the student in scrambled order. The student must reorder the words to match the sentence supplied in the program. In one program he must type out the sentence. In the other two he just types in the number associated on the screen with the words of the sentence. Two of the programs just present the words of the sentence in scrambled order but in the third the student is shown a sentence and asked to transform it into a question. Again all the words he needs for his answer are supplied to him in scrambled order.

Other programs deal with grammatical structures. The short answer, i.e. Yes, he did, etc.; filling in the question word, did, have, who, etc.; filling in prepositions, etc. In some of these programs the student gets points for correct answers, and in others he plays against the clock: he may have one minute to answer each question or he may be asked to answer as many questions as he can within a time set by the program, say five minutes.

Two programs can be used to check the understanding of texts or telecasts. There the format is very similar to that used in the vocabulary exercise. A question is presented at the top of the screen and five possible answers are provided down one side. The correct response causes the answer to be printed over in reverse and the presentation of the next question.

There are forty Class Programs for the 7th grade which have used different Master Program moulds. By the end of the year there will be some fifty-five such programs. This is more than can conveniently fit into the framework that was originally set. However, this is all to the good. Out of the programs available to the 7th grade teacher he will be able to choose the twenty-five or thirty he thinks will suit him best. Or, perhaps for the games in particular, time will be found outside the class room.

It had been hoped to use the programs in school at the beginning of the school year. This did not work out. Now it is hoped that before the end of the school year some of the programs will be tried on some selected students and that next year they will be ready for all the 7th grade — this is the next big step.

4. THE PETACH-TIKVA CAI PROJECT

Report on the use of the MAKAL Computer Based Instructional System in teaching English as a Foreign Language to Pupils in Two Petach Tikva Elementary Schools

(Translation of a report prepared by Ms. *Yaira Perry*, Institute for Teaching Aids, 43 Brodetsky Street, Ramat Aviv)

During the months of September, October 1981, an experiment using computers for teaching English as a Foreign Language was conducted with pupils from two Petach Tikva elementary schools (Kroll and Kibbutz Galuyot). This project, sponsored by the Petach Tikva Municipality and the Institute for Teaching Aids in cooperation with the Ministry of Education and Culture (the committee for the use of computers in education), was aimed at helping those pupils who were classified as having difficulty learning English.

The following were the team which developed and evaluated the material:
Writers: Nitza Barel, Marlene Erez, Yaira Perry, Claire Gordon and Dr. Roberta Stock (pedagogical consultant)
Evaluation: Ceila Atias (as part of M.A. work)

Specific goals of the project

The following were the specific goals of the project:

a) to help the weakest students;
b) to decrease the gap between the weakest students and other students in each of the heterogeneous classrooms;
c) to increase motivation;
d) to evaluate the usefulness of CAI in teaching English.

Methodology

The computer material (courseware) was based on ESH 4/5 and developed for the MAKAL system. This instruction system allows a pupil to learn new material and/or practice and review material already covered in the classroom.

Learning is done through interaction between the pupil and the computer with the pupil progressing at his/her own speed. The system is not meant as a replacement for the teacher; rather it is intended as an aid. With the computer, the teacher can be sure that the weaker pupil receives all the additional and individual attention he/she needs.

Courseware for the MAKAL system can be and is being developed by teachers without their having to undergo any special training.

Description of the Experiment

Three 6th grade classes (75 pupils in all) took part in the experiment. These pupils had already studied English for two years (from the 4th grade) with poor results. A great number of the pupils need serious remedial wook in basics. The lessons developed eespecially for this project began at the beginning — the alphabet, elementary reading, basic vocabulary.

Before working on the computer, pupils were given a pre-test. The average grade on this pre-test was 64% with a standard deviation of 19%.

The fastest pupils completed the computer work in about 4 or 5 hours. Slower pupils took up to 10 hours to complete the material. The average session lasted between 20 and 30 minutes.

The experiment took place on Commodore computers, which were connected to one disk drive.

Results

At the end of the experiment, pupils were given the same pre-test again (as a post-test). The average grade was 84% with a standard deviation of 14%. There was an absolute improvement of 20% and a relative improvement of 30%.

Three control groups were compared with the experimental groups. The control groups were given both the pre-test and the post-test. The post-test results showed an absolute improvement of 8.7% and a relative improvement of 12.9%.

After the 6th grades had completed the experiment, the material was made available to weaker 8th grade pupils in the Kibbutz Galyiot school. The results for these pupils, who had been studying English for 4 years, were:

Pretest: 49.9 average grade Post-test: 68.3 average grade

There was an absolute improvement of 18.9% and a relative improvement of 38%.

Additional results

In addition to the direct benefits received (i.e. improvement in English), other side effects were noted:

a) pupils acquired experience reading and following instructions;
b) pupils acquired positive experience in the process of trying, making a mistake and then correcting the mistake;
c) the computer work gave pupils a feeling of success and self-worth;
d) the individualized work helped uncover other problems that went unnoticed in the classroom.

Conclusions:

It is obvious that using the computer contributed to the learning process, to an increase in motivation, and to an improvement of attitude towards the pupils' studies. Below are some of the comments made by pupils participating in the study:

Alon: "I love the computer a lot".
Jakov: "Throughout all the lessons, the computer was my friend".
Segal: "The computer spoke to me politely and didn't yell at me".

Yochi: "I would like to continue learning with a computer, not only English but also math and other things".

Moshe: "When the computer says 'wonderful' or 'excellent', it's nice and a pupil is happy and wants more compliments".

5. MASHOV: COMPUTER-AIDED INSTRUCTION

by *Rachel Ben-Moshe*, Beersheba

"Mashov" ("feedback" in English) is a project in the process of development and expansion, after an initial experimental stage of about three years, during which was headed by Dr. Benjamin Chen of Ben-Gurion University. It was planned specifically for socially-disadvantaged (מעוני-חיסות) children, and was carried out jointly by the Education Department at Ben-Gurion University, the Computer Centre there, the Ministry of Education, and the Government Welfare and Rehabilitation Project (רווחה)

Two schools were chosen to take part in the project: Nirim Primary School and Carro Primary School, both in Beersheba. The project started with courses in the Hebrew language and in Arithmetic, for Grades 4, 5 and 6. A course in Jewish studies was also begun, but has been dropped for the time being.

The course in English, in its experimental stage, was introduced during the school year 1979/80, for the Grade 7 "A" stream. This stream, in a socially-disadvantaged context, is actually rather a slow group when compared to a regular "A" stream. However, one of the criteria for including a child in the A stream is his reading ability, i.e. the children must have mastered the first stages in the acquisition of the reading skill: letter, sound and word-recognition; the recognition of phonic patterns; and the mastery of a fair amount of lexical items and grammatical patterns. Their reading ability must be such as to enable them to read and understand a short and simple text.

This basic knowledge of the reading skill was considered by the course-writers to be a prerequisite for computerized instruction. The main reason for this was that the computer at the disposal of the project was the Ben-Gurion University C.D.C. computer, with black and white, alpha-numeric terminals in the schools. However, when the experimental stage was over, the terminals were replaced by Atari 800 micro-computers, thus beginning a new phase in the development of the courseware. During the year 1981/82, the original C.D.C. courseware was adapted to the micro-computer, and used with additional effects in colour, sound and graphics. Although at that stage the nature of these effects was mostly

aesthetic, continuous efforts are being made on the part of all involved to develop courseware which will effectively make the most of these options.

The Mashov project is based on a number of criteria. Of these, the most relevant to teachers are:

1. the development of courses especially suited to the level and the needs of the class during the course;
2. involvement of the teachers who are currently instructing the classes in the development of the course itself;
3. the use of computer-aided instruction as an integral part of the school curriculum, causing no disruption of school routine and class schedules.

The English Course

The English course, in its present state, consists of fifteen units, divided more or less equally between grammar and reading comprehension. It is currently being used by a number of schools in addition to those previously mentioned, and so far reports have been encouraging.

The principles on which the course is based make it suitable not only for the Grade 7 level, but also for a slow Grade 8 and possibly for a Vocational school Grade 9.

The course-writers had in mind, first and foremost, the special difficulties of socially-disadvantaged children. It was therefore essential to ensure a step-by-step progress in which the reading comprehension units would gradually increase the number of lexical items mastered, while the grammar units would teach grammatical patterns based on simple language in order to avoid, on the part of the learner, a double confrontation with new grammar material and unfamiliar lexical items at one and the same time.

The course as a whole is based on the general syllabus for Grade 7, but is dependent neither on the Television course nor on any other specific course or book. This enables the integration of the course with whatever the teacher has decided to do in the classroom.

Reading Comprehension

Considering that reading comprehension is for socially-disadvantaged children much more difficult than going through a set of graded grammar exercises, most of the work the children are required to do in reading comprehension is at the lowest and simplest level — the verbal level. The reasons for this are:

1. the limited knowledge of English and the need, first and foremost, for the acquisition of a more extensive vocabulary, on which it will be possible, at a later stage, to base work on a higher level of comprehension.

2. the special characteristics of these children in their processes of thinking, even in their mother-tongue. They do not seem to be trained to look for logical connections and so make inappropriate associations; they often confuse cause and effect; and seem to have great difficulty in observing the relationships of objects, situations and concepts. When these children have to cope with all these difficulties in a foreign language, with its confusing sounds and bewildering syntax, plus the idiomatic use of language, they are soon at a loss, discouraged and frustrated.

The course-writers have therefore, at this stage, deliberately developed the reading comprehension units with the declared aim of teaching lexical items in a given context, with the gradual increase of the vocabulary used in the course and constant reinforcement of items previously taught. The children are also required to practise the identification of facts, and whenever possible they are required to do some work on a higher level of comprehension, such as finding semantic relationships or determining the correct sequence of events in a given situation.

Courses for Younger Classes

Together with the extension of the Grade 7 course, possibly for Grade 8 as well, a course for beginners is being developed. This course is planned to cover the material needed from the very beginning, i.e. the alphabet, the basic phonic patterns, words and simple sentences, up to Grade 6 level, thus joining up with the existing courseware.

The microcomputer as a teaching aid for beginners has obvious advantages. Considering the special needs of this age group, the course, generally speaking, will be based on the extensive use of colour, graphics and sound, to convey instructions (in Hebrew), meanings and English pronunciation. The course for Grade 4 or 5 is intended for a class which has had at least one term of English in the classroom. This is deemed to be essential prior knowledge. Both the Grade 4/5 and the Grade 6 courses will have supplementary instruction in small groups in the classroom or in the workshops for the slower children. The workshop activities will re-inforce the material the child has been having difficulty with, thus enabling him to continue his computer instruction.

It is important to stress that computer-aided instruction is not meant to and cannot replace the teacher. It is an aid. The difference between computerized instruction and the usual classroom activity and textbook is programming in such a way that it is impossible to progress without mastering whatever is taught. It is a step-by-step activity, and it is impossible to take the easy way out and go

on to the next item without first completing the previous one, whether successfully or not.

Experience will quickly teach the child that unsuccessful attempts are marked as mistakes, and this ensures that the child does not type just any answer in order to proceed quickly. As a rule, he does everything he can to get the right answer. First attempts, even if incorrect, are not considered mistakes, and the children are given a second opportunity in which they can correct their mistakes.

Mashov — Feedback

The Mashov project shows that socially-disadvantaged children are able to do such work, if it is suited to their level of study. The technique of inter-active work, using a keyboard, is mastered very quickly. Once the initial difficulties are overcome, the child spends a whole lesson in concentrated, individualized learning. The feedback is immediate, the opportunity to correct first mistakes is given, mistakes are pointed out and corrected on the spot and, perhaps most important, each child can progress at his own individual pace. Nothing is overlooked. A child who fails branches off and is given extra work, graded in such a way that it enables him to have a second try later. The better pupils are not held back. Every child has the chance to try and cope with independent work in the most favourable conditions and with the best chances of success.

6. A COMPUTER TESTING AND PRACTICE SYSTEM FOR EFL : TOAM

by *Susan Nissan*, Centre for Educational Technology

Computer applications in education have greatly increased during the past ten years. The experience gained provides a better understanding of the capabilities and limitations of the use of computers in the educational environment.

There are a variety of interactive instructional strategies using computers, and they vary in complexity and amount of student-system interaction. One of these strategies is Testing and Practice, which supplements instruction previously initiated by a teacher. More elaborate is the Tutorial strategy where the student may learn and receive explanations about new materials (independent of teacher presentation). Other strategies include Simulation and Problem Solving, but these will not be discussed here.

TOAM, whichis a Testing and Practice system, consists of a mini-computer and 32 terminals. Its purpose is to provide an opportunity for extensive practice for the pupil at a level with which he is capable of dealing. This practice is accom-

panied by accurate progress reports for the teacher showing each pupil's strengths and weaknesses. The success in the arithmetic programme encouraged CET [2] to develop TOAM programs for other school subjects (Hebrew Reading Comprehension, Hebrew Spelling, Geometry and English). English was added to the TOAM system because it is an obligatory yet difficult subject for most pupils.

Although many linguists and pedagogues look at language as a holistic process, there are others who maintain that a sub-skill approach should be used in language instruction. CET subscribes to an eclectic teaching-learning approach, that calls for both the mastery of subordinate units as well as an integrative global process.

It is possible to consider the learning process in five stages:

1. Initial presentation — presented by teacher
2. Practice — presented by teacher or by computer
3. Testing the level of competence — presented by teacher or by computer
4. Follow-up: reinforcement or relearning (based on 3) — presented by teacher
5. Application — presented by teacher.

TOAM deals with stages 2 and 3; whereas 1, 4, and 5 are better dealt with by the teacher in the classroom. The follow-up may be based on the results that the teacher has received from the testing.

TOAM may be considered a teacher's aid, just as a tape recorder or a television set, but which has the following advantages:

1. It exposes pupils to extensive drill (saving the teacher the often tedious task of producing exercises and correcting them).
2. It gives immediate feedback to the pupil as to whether his answer was correct (and if incorrect, may give a clue to guide him to the correct answer). In a usual classroom situation a pupil may have to wait several days to know if his exercises were done correctly.
3. It has a long-term memory, and maintains a record of the strengths and weaknesses of each pupil. This record determines the level of the exercises presented by the system, and is printed for the teacher's use.

The teacher in the classroom presents material in large meaningful units. TOAM attempts to isolate and drill specific skills within the language system. It is hoped that the justification for this breakdown will be apparent in the improved results of pupils who participate in TOAM drills.

---

1. Luis Osin, "Computer-Assisted Instruction in Arithmetic in Israeli Disadvantaged Elementary Schools", in Computers in Education, IFIP 1981.
2. The Centre for Educational Technology is a non-profit organization, founded and funded by the Rothschild Foundation with the purpose of raising the level of instruction in Israel with the help of technology.

With this purpose in mind, a matrix was developed by Dr. Alan Marbe, which consists of 15 language topics and 30 levels (see Table 1).

Topic Number	Level Range	Topic Definition
1	50—79	Letter/Word/Sentence Attack
2	50—78	Vocabulary
3	52—74	Noun Morphology
4	65—79	Modals and Auxiliaries
5	53—79	Verb Morphology: Inflexion
6	64—79	Derivational Affixation
7	75—79	Adjectives and Adverbs
8	52—78	Noun Phrase Structure
9	53—79	Sentence Patterns
10	60—79	Verb Tenses (usage)
11	58—79	Coordination/Reference
12	55—79	Punctuation/Classification
13	60—79	Detail and Comprehension
14	66—79	Sequencing
15	66—79	Cause and Effect

TABLE 1: TOPIC/LEVEL MATRIX

The level refers to the year and month (e.g. level 62 would be the second month of sixth grade). A language sub-skill is defined at each point on the matrix. It is possible to consider the two dimensions of the matrix independently. On the level dimension, we have the various skills the pupil has to practice during a certain month of the year; on the topic dimension, there is the developmental progress of the specific topic.

The matrix structure was analyzed by Professor Bernard Spolsky of Bar Ilan University and by Mr. Rafael Gefen, Chief Inspector for the teaching of English, and revised according to their suggestions.

A team of writers working under the direction of Dr. Arieh Wohl and the supervision of the author developed a large set of exercises (approximately 6,000) to provide a drill sequence for each point in the topic/level matrix. The writers were able to select different interactive patterns for the exercises from the TOAM program library, developed by Dr. Luis Osin. Since the programming skills are required to create the exercises, writers were selected on the basis of their creativity, proficiency in English, and experience in teaching.

The English TOAM CAI system is correlated to the Instructional Television Book series, grades 5, 6, and 7 (*Neighbours, Here We Are, Gabby and Debby, Debby in Hospital*). The ITV series was chosen because it is well structured and the most widely used series in Israel. The vocabulary and structures used are taken from the alternative editions of *Gabby and Debby, Debby in Hospital* and *Here We Are.*

These editions exclude the material intended for the advanced level. The rationale for limiting the vocabulary and structures is that the pupils who are especially likely to need extra practice are the ones using the alternative editions. A team from ITV checked the exercises developed for TOAM to ensure their correspondence with the ITV series.

How TOAM works

Initially, the pupil enters a diagnostic sequence to establish his level in each topic. It is possible, and even likely, that a pupil will be at different levels in different topics. For example, a beginning 6th grader may be placed at level 60 in Vocabulary, 58 in Verb Forms, and 54 in Sentence Patterns, depending on his performance in each skill. Once his levels have been established, the pupil proceeds with regular drill. He is presented with exercises at his own level so that he will normally get at least two-thirds of the exercises correct, giving him a feeling of achievement. At each point on the matrix there is a collection of different exercises. The exercises are selected for presentation randomly from the 15 topics. The computer keeps track of the number of exercises the pupil does at each point and whether or not each exercise was answered correctly.

The pupil has three opportunities to answer, but the computer considers the answer correct only if the pupil answers correctly on the first try. When the pupil has completed five exercises at a certain level and topic (which were interspersed with exercises from other topics), the computer does one of two things: if the pupil reaches a required level of success, the system moves him to the next level; otherwise, the system presents him with another group of 5 exercises of the same kind.

The computer presents the questions in a variety of formats. The system uses graphics to illustrate and enhance the appearance of the exercises.

Within a year TOAM will also have a sound system. The pupil will be able to hear specific words and sentences pronounced. This will aid the pupil's comprehension of the written texts. The sound will also be incorporated into a dictionary. If the pupil has difficulty with a word, he will be able to ask for help. The word will be translated into Hebrew and pronounced in English.

Field testing is planned in the near future when students in grades 5—7 will test the program. Changes will be made if necessary and TOAM English will be available to all the users of the TOAM II System.

NEWS FROM THE INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CENTRE

by *Dvora Ben-Meir, Sionah Kronfeld, Sheila Been*

The course HERE, THERE AND EVERYWHERE is a departure point for a new approach to the use of Television in the classroom.

The course for the Upper Levels, *Here, There and Everywhere* consists of several independent but interrelated components — the Pupils' Book, Audio-Cassette, Telecasts and Teacher's Guide. While it is clear to teachers that it is possible to use the Pupil's Materials with or without the accompanying telecasts, up till now little stress has been put on using the telecasts as an independent component. In this article we would like to introduce the concept that the telecasts can serve an important educational purpose, used either with or without the pupil's materials. This concept represents a departure from previous policy in which the telecast was always seen as an integral part of the course of study, serving to introduce, reinforce or review a teaching point focused on in the Pupil's books. We realize now that this approach does not do justice to the medium of television and does not take into account all that it can offer to the pupil's educational experiences.

What does the medium have to offer ?

1. *From the point of view of language learning.* Israeli pupils are exposed to varying degrees of English "in action". In some cases, pupils are exposed *only* to the English of their English teacher. Moreover, the English they hear spoken in class is "teacher" English — especially geared to the level of the pupils and mainly carrying content which is teaching oriented — explanations, questions, comments, information-giving, etc. English exchanges between teacher and pupil are rarely representative of real communication. In some cases pupils have the opportunity to hear and talk to English-speaking relations, friends, or tourists, but again the conversations probably take into account that the Hebrew-speaking participant is a learner. And of course, most pupils watch English films on television — usually with the help of sub-titles which immediately distract attention from the spoken language. We believe that viewing an English film in the classroom with adequate teacher-guidance can provide a very different kind of language-learning experience from any of the situations cited above. Pre-viewing

activities can provide pupils with enough linguistic content or psychological preparation to prevent frustration. Teachers may also want to focus on any aspects of language which might be referred to in post-viewing activities. The use of film in the classroom is one of the few ways to expose and sensitize pupils to the language of the *real* world with its sociolinguistic and paralinguistic features, colloquialisms, pace and dialects. Furthermore, the use of both sight and sound simultaneously increases redundancy, thereby facilitating comprehension. This important combination of sight and sound helps the learner extract messages from both linguistic and non-linguistic sources, thus developing important interpretive abilities. It also encourages the learner to search for a speaker's intention rather than demanding a literal understanding of the txt. Let us turn to another contribution that the medium of television can offer.

2. *From the point of view of general education.* It is generally accepted today that English teachers are as much educators as teachers of a specific discipline. In order to educate it is necessary to increase general knowledge, to discuss social and moral values and, last but not least, to develop cognitive abilities, such as logical and divergent thinking. A film can provide a powerful springboard for activities focused on any of these areas in a way which is not personally threatening, but still real. The film provides the background knowledge which is shared equally by all, but which triggers different reactions by individuals. It is the difference in these reactions which provides the focus for discussion.

The two aspects of the medium discussed above are self-evident and have been exploited by many teachers in the past. We would like to introduce another aspect which is stall largely unexplored territory.

3. *From the point of view of CRITICAL VIEWING.* Since television is so much a part of everyday life and in fact is replacing "reading" amongst a sizable portion of the population, it seems to us that we should help our pupils become critical viewers, so that the time spent in front of the "box" is educationally valid. To become a "critical viewer" it is necessary to be "visually literate" — that is, to be aware of the elements which go into film-making. A generation ago pupils learned the characteristics of a good short story, a novel, a play, a poem. Today it is perhaps equally if not more relevant to develop the criteria of a good film. Many of the criteria are shared between literature and film — for example, the development of plot, characters and theme. However, each medium has, in addition, features which are especially characteristic of that medium. Perhaps the most obvious difference between film and other media is that a camera is used, and that editing fills a vital role in the putting-together of a film. As television viewers we are all aware of such techniques as flashback, close-up, voice-over, and special effects; however very often we cannot appreciate or discuss these techniques, since we do not know the terminology or meta-language which would

enable us to articulate this awareness. The question is whether it is justifiable to introduce these concepts into the English lesson. Our feeling is that it is. Just as it is impossible to appreciate literature without literary terminology — metaphor, simile, personification, etc. — so we need a limited number of technical terms to appreciate film. Let us look at an example which illustrates the point. The telecast *BIG HENRY AND THE POLKA DOT KID* tells the story of an orphan boy. Luke Baldwin, who goes to live with his Uncle Henry and Aunt Helen. Luke finds Henry difficult to live with since they have "different ways of looking at things." The theme revolves arund the relationships between Henry and Luke and between Luke and Edwina, a neighbor who helps Luke understand Henry. After viewing the film several times we noticed that the changing relationship between these characters is depicted *visually* by means of CAMERA ANGLES. In the scenes which depict the strained relationship between Henry and Luke, the camera focuses on Henry from Luke's viewpoint or Luke from Henry's viewpoint, — that is, Henry always appears large and Luke small. In the scenes with Luke and Edwina eye-to-eye camera angle is used — that is, they appear equal. In the scenes when Luke and Henry and getting along better the HIGH/SLOW angles begin to disappear, and when at last they "find" each other, a clear eye-to-eye angle shot with both faces in the same frame is used. This seemed to us a very artistic use of the camera and we felt that it should be brought to the attention of our pupils. In order to make pupils aware of this feature of the film it was necessary to introduce the terms *HIGH ANGLE SHOT*, *LOW ANGLE SHOT*, and *EYE-TO-EYE ANGLE SHOT*. Clearly not all films lend themselves to an analysis of this sort. Each film must be treated on its own merits — in some films the acting might be the primary focus, in others the story line, in others the music, etc. The point is that all films contain certain elements such as STORY, ACTING, DIALOGUE, VISUALS, and SOUND EFFECTS and pupils should become consciously aware of each of these elements in order to help them become critical television-viewers.

During the school year 1982-83, it was decided to broadcast two more films from the HERE, THERE AND EVERYWHERE series even though the accompanying pupil's material is not yet ready. We felt that it gave us an opportunity of showing teachers how to utilize a film without support material. Teachers' pamphlets with suggested guidelines and activities were written. With the help of the English Inspectorate, seminars were organized in a number of centres. A dedicated group of Counsellors ran these seminars at which the above-mentioned teachers' pamphlets were distributed. The response among teachers was very encouraging and future seminars are planned. We realize that teachers who are seriously interested in including the use of the television medium as part of their teaching repertoire will need the guidance these seminars can offer. Teachers who

are interested in attending seminars in their area should contact their English Inspector or the Instructional Television Centre for information.

The fact that more and more schools are acquiring closed-circuit video systems will now enable teachers to use films for a variety of purposes. With closed-circuit, a film can be viewed several times, each time for a different purpose. The use of film can offer many opportunities for classroom interaction and communication. The medium of television can be a very useful and dynamic teaching tool for all.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

NEWS FROM THE ENGLISH TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

Sir,

The E.T.A.I. Winter Conference was held at Bar-Ilan University during the Hanukka vacation. Some 250 members from as far away as the Arava and Kfar Blum participated in the annual Winter get-together. This year's programme consisted of an opening lecture by visiting expert in language acquisition Dr. Ellen Rosansky, a wide range of workshops, and a final plenary session. Our guest lecturer pinpointed the dilemma of the foreign language teacher and learner ; and her parting remarks regarding her own experience as a learner of a foreign language no doubt left her listeners with much food for thought. It is often too easy to forget the learner's side.

The workshops were planned to cater for as many teachers as possible. Among the workshops were: cloze techniques, remedial teaching of reading, materials for group role-playing, reading strategies, and games for language learning, etc. etc. The final session consisted of an address by Mr. Raphael Gefen, Chief Inspector for English, who "put us in the picture" as regards changes and future projects. In the final plenary session, many delegates spoke about the difficulties and possibilities of starting and running an E.T.A.I. branch.

As a direct consequence of the Conference, a meeting was held with English teachers in the Krayot near Haifa, where 40 teachers encountered E.T.A.I. for the first time. The response and interests evinced were encouraging and give reason for hope that E.T.A.I. may at last take root in the North.

Last but not least, E.T.A.I. Tel-Aviv had its initial meeting in January, where 35 dedicated teachers met to listen to Yael Bejerano on "Everyman's University" materials. One cannot but congratulate Bonnie Ellinger and Julie Strollie (Tel-Aviv) and Shulamit Ashkenazi (Krayot) for their enthusiasm and efforts in getting things off the ground.

E.T.A.I. branches are also active in Rehovot, Rishon le Zion, Kiron, Herzlia and Jerusalem. The National Committee is at present engaged in planning the second E.T.A.I. Summer School in Jerusalem (projected dates July 10-12 — not final): this year's School promises to be even better and more exciting than last year's very successful happening.

We welcome all advice, suggestions and offers of help. E.T.A.I. is an association for teachers run by teachers. We need your assistance and good will to make it tick.

Ephraim Weintraub, National Secretary,
304/16 Hapartizanim, Jerusalem, 97888, Tel. 02-812134

ENGLISH BAGRUT PROGRAMME

Sir,

We English teachers of Ben-Zvi Secondary School, Kiriat Ono, wish to convey to you our misgivings about the decision to make the literature section of the Bagrut examination an internal examination. It is widely known among teachers of subjects that are tested "internally" in this country, that "internal" examinations tend to detract from the importance of the subject taught, rather than enhance it. This will undoubtedly be the case with English literature, once it is relegated to the status of an internally-tested subject. The Ministry must surely be aware of this danger. We therefore urge the Ministry to reconsider its decision. Let English literature retain its present status as an integral part of the external examination!

Whilst on the subject of literature, could you please provide us with a logical explanation as to why a new English literature programme has been introduced by the Ministry when there are, as yet, no suitable textbooks available for our students.

English teachers, Ben-Zvi school

(*Editor's comments*: English literature is not a separate subject; the subject taught in school is "English as a Foreign Language". Students will probably read the literature with alacrity and interest for purposes of linguistic proficiency and will at the same time gain different degrees of literary competence. Regarding textbooks, not only are there now textbooks but since the "new" programme includes all of the "old" programme teachers were able to draw up their "internal" programme from material already available.)

COUNSELLING IN THE DRUZE SCHOOLS OF THE NORTH

Sir,

During the last school year (1981-82) I worked for one day a week as counsellor to the English teachers in the Druze sector of the Northern District, in place of the regular counsellor, who was on leave. It was an interesting and challenging year, and I want to report on it here.

Education in the sector has received impetus in recent years with the establishment of the comprehensive and junior high schools and of the special Druze section in the Ministry. Concerning the teaching of English, the chief problem is the severe shortage, especially in the primary schools, of teachers trained to teach English or with a good knowledge of the language. The result is generally low standards of achievement and much frustration and turn-over among primary school teachers, and very big problems in the secondary schools. Understandably, a good deal of teaching through translation and isolated 'grammar' rules still goes on in both kinds of school.

Altogether then, there is much room for improvement in the teaching of English in the Druze schools, and indeed I found everyone concerned — teachers, headmasters and inspectors — most aware of the fact, and ready and anxious to co-operate in any activities which might change the situation. Some basic things have already been done in this direction. A few years ago several Druze teachers completed a 3-year in service course for junior high school teachers at Seminar Oranim in Tivon, and several primary school teachers are currently attending an in-service course at Seminar Gordon in Haifa. The regular counsellor for English, Mr. Yosef Shahin, has worked hard at the necessary basic tasks of introducing the standard syllabus and textbooks into the schools and encouraging the viewing of the television programmes (still not a regular feature in many of the schools), in counselling individual teachers in the classroom, and in getting some teachers to attend the summer course in Acco run by Esther Harari. I wanted to try something different with my year. I felt that to confine myself to visits and talks with individual teachers, managing perhaps two such visits in the year with each teacher, would not be an effective use of my time, and that some way of getting teachers together, and working together, was worth trying. With the distances involved and without the necessary previous preparation of the teachers, a weekly course for all — or most of — the teachers did not seem practical, and I looked round for other ways of getting some general activity going. As the year went on three ways of working suggested themselves.

First, in each of the 3 high schools (the two comprehensive and one junior high school), each with its 3 to 6 specifically English teachers, a sort of workshop developed out of the teachers' meetings I held at the end of my regular visits to the school. At this meeting some basic topic arising out of my observation of

lessons and talks with teachers on that day was discussed; the meeting closed with the various teachers undertaking to try out some new technique or approach, to be reported on at the next meeting. Later in the year the day included open lessons which were then the basis for the end-of-day meeting. To create contacts between teachers in the different kinds of school in the same village or general area, teachers from the nearest primary schools were invited to the last of such meetings in each of the high schools. Altogether there were 5 or 6 workshop days in each school, about one meeting a month. These in-school workshops were very successful: at each school a dialogue between the teachers quickly developed and new ideas and initiatives came up; as the year went on teachers also reported on a change and improvement in the status of English and English teachers in their school. Workshops of this kind seem definitely worthwhile continuing.

Second, there was one general study day for all primary and junior high school teachers in the sector. Two teachers gave open lessons; a lively discussion followed (cut short when all the teachers had to rush off to catch the afternoon bus from the village!). 27 teachers came to the study day, a sizeable proportion of all the teachers of English in the sector. As a first time for a study day of this kind the meeting was very successful and generated a lot of enthusiasm. Meetings on this large scale, however, are difficult to arrange and to follow up effectively, and are probably worth repeating only if integrated into some wider activity (for which there was no time this year).

Third, there were several local study days, one at each of various primary schools. At each meeting teachers gave open lessons, to which, and to the following discussion, teachers in the nearest schools were invited. With more time, meetings of this kind, involving local groups of primary schools, could develop into the sort of regular workshops that took place in the high schools. As such they could be very useful.

Finally I want to say that I thoroughly enjoyed my year's work in the Druze schools, not least in that I met a lot of fine and dedicated people and made a lot of new friends.

Pnina Nahmani, Haifa

"THE MARTYRS" BY NELLY SACHS

Sir,

I have always found the following poem particularly meaningful for our pupils and particularly valuable for יום השואה. The poem is engraved in three languages — Hebrew, the original German, and English — on a memorial just outside Jerusalem. The English text is as follows:

Mutely the stone speaks
Of the martyrdom of the six million
Whose body drifted as smoke
Through the air.

Silence — silence — silence
You who were born afterwards
Remember the men, women, children
Who became martyrs
In a time of violence —
Lower your head in humility.

Ilana Neumark, Haifa

ORAL TESTING

Sir,

Dr. Nelson Berkoff's article on Testing Oral Proficiency in no. 27 of the English Teachers' Journal aroused my interest as I have been an Oral Examiner in Jerusalem for the past three years. I was also involved in oral examining in England about ten years ago, testing students in English and French.

The following comments on the points mentioned in the article are based on my own experience:—

1. *prepared speeches* — I find it easy to recognise them and cut them short with a quick change of subject. They don't happen very often.
2. *the nervous pupil* — Here I use the class teacher to help relax the tension. One or two questions from the pupil's regular teacher often helps.
3. *training of examiners* — I think this is important in order to obtain a uniform standard. I agree with the suggestion that prospective examiners should be required to attend a briefing course (2-4 hours) where the principles of evaluation are explained, and where they may be allowed to evaluate the performance of specimen pupils. I attended a course of this type ten years ago, in England.
4. *use of tape-recorders* — When testing students' proficiency in French, I had to record each interview and the tape was sent to an examiner for moderation.

I found the introduction of this mechanical device nerve-wracking (worrying if it was recording correctly). There was near-disaster on one occasion with unexpected "noises off" — a lawn-mower with a noisy motor! Of course the modern cassette-tape is simpler to operate and some schools may have technicians available.

Fortunately, I never had to record more than ten students at any one time.

5. *Proficiency Ratings* — The five point scale given is excellent for helping the examiner to assess a suitable mark as objectively as is humanly possible. I presume that level 5 equals a mark of 10, level 4 = 9, level 3 = 8, level 2 = 7, level 1 = 6 and that a mark of 5 would show a failure.

To sum up, I think we should remember that our twelfth grade students know that they are facing service in the army soon after their Bagrut examinations. In view of this I think that we may be unnecessarily exaggerating the 'ordeal of the oral'. One must also accept as invitable the fact that no oral examination can be completely objective. I feel that our present system of testing oral proficiency, despite its failings, has much to recommend it. I have found that the presence of the pupil's own teacher in the examination room helps enormously. He or she knows which subjects should be avoided and which ones may create interest.

Helen Gush, Jerusalem

נרים שמופיעים בגליון זה:

INFORMATION FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS

...גרות — הבחינה החגיגית בסקסטים ספרותיים/טכניים; תרגילים חדשים בבחינות ...גרות; הבנת הנשמע 1982; סדנא לתירגום; ספרי לימוד חדשים; התכתבות עם תלמידים באה"ב.

SYLLABUS FOR SECRETARIAL TREND

תכנית לימודים ותכניות בחינה (גמר ובגרות) במגמת המזכירות-המינהל.

R.I.C.H. PROGRAMME

חדשות מהתוכנית החדשה לטקסטים בנושאים הומניים ועכשיים.

THE USE OF TRANSLATION

המשך הדיון על התירגום לעברית כאמצעי הוראה וכמיומנות נפרדת.

ENGLISH FOR THE "DISADVANTAGED"

הוראת אנגלית לתלמידים טעוני-טיפוח — שאלון למורים על דעותיהם בנושא, וכיצד דיעותיהם משפיעות על היחסים בכיתה.

SYLLABUS FOR THE "LEAST-ABLE"

הצעה לתוכנית לימודים דיפרנציאלית לתלמידי-תיכון החלשים ביותר (מסמ"ם—מסמ"ר).

DRAMA IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

חלק שני של מאמר בנושא הדרמה מבחינת ראות פסיכולינגוויסטית.

COMPUTER-AIDED INSTRUCTION

דו"חות מחמשת הפרוייקטים בישראל בהוראת אנגלית בסיוע המחשב — קרית שמונה, טירת הכרמל, באר-שבע, פתח-תקוה, מ.ט.ח.; מאמר-סקירה על שימוש המחשב בהוראת אנגלית.

INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CENTRE

תיאור הסדרה החדשה לחטיבה העליונה.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

מכתבים למערכת של אגודת המורים לאנגלית, התוכנית בספרות לבחינות הבגרות, הדרכת מורים בבתי-הספר לתלמידים דרוזים; השיר "קידוש השם" מאת גלי זקס; בחינות בגרות בעל-פה.

משרד החינוך והתרבות
המזכירות הפדגוגית – הפיקוח על הוראת האנגלית

עלון למורים לאנגלית

מספר 28
סיון תשמ"ג, יוני 1983